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## LITERATURE.

MEMOIRS OF GENERAL SHERMAN.

*Memoirs of General William T. Sherman.* By Himself. In Two Volumes. (London: Henry S. King & Co., 1875.)

It was a bold thing to write this book, for General Sherman does not hesitate to express his opinions freely about living men, and as soldiers are proverbially sensitive to criticism, we must suppose that so outspoken a narrative has created a considerable sensation in America; but the absence of self-laudation and the natural honesty of the writer, apparent in every page, may go far to soften the irritation which such plain-speaking might otherwise excite. In reading this book, we may remark by the way, one cannot but be forcibly struck with the differences of speech which are gradually rising up in the United States, and which as years go on must make the American language a separate tongue; the writing of this book has a more distinct accent than anything we ever heard spoken. Another notable thing brought out by the narrative, is the really republican simplicity which appears to have distinguished the mode of living of the leading American generals during the war. With us a man might rise from the ranks, but if he became a general commanding in the field, we should consider him a very great personage off duty as well as on, and he would be surrounded even on service with an atmosphere of etiquette and ceremony. But General Sherman, whether alone, or when his wife and children came down to see him during a pause in the campaign, seems to have lived with almost as great simplicity as any subordinate officer.

The story of General Sherman's life also illustrates the enormous advantages offered by the expansiveness of American life for getting on in the world, in the ready opening offered for leaving one profession and taking up another. Educated at West Point, and gazetted to the artillery somewhat more than thirty years ago, Sherman was stationed in California during the Mexican war, and thus lost the only opportunity which it seemed likely an American soldier would have of seeing service. He took an active share, however, in the first occupation of California during the exciting times of the first gold discoveries, and when the most difficult duty of officers was to prevent their men from deserting. Finding no prospect of a career in the army, and great difficulty in maintaining himself on his pay, especially with Californian prices,

Sherman retired and embarked in business, first as a banker, then as a lawyer, and eventually re-engaged in public employment, as Superintendent of the Louisiana State Academy of Learning and Military Academy, a sort of public school under State patronage and quasi military organisation, but apparently a self-supporting private speculation, like most of our own public schools. Here the war found him; Sherman had no hesitation in throwing in his lot on the side of the Union; nor indeed had he any closer than his official connexion with the South, and he resigned his appointment under circumstances which show that he must have gained the warm respect of the governing men of Louisiana. He was soon after to be opposed to his own pupils. Sherman's first intention was to remain quietly in the employment he had obtained as manager of a railroad company at St. Louis, and he gave offence at Washington by refusing the chief clerkship of the War Department which was offered him; but after the capture of Fort Sumter by the Confederates, and when war became inevitable, he offered his services to the Government, and was appointed a colonel, and soon a brigadier-general of volunteers; previously to which latter promotion, however, he had taken part in the battle of Bull's Run, in command of a brigade.

"General McDowell had resumed his headquarters at the Arlington House, and was busily engaged in restoring order to his army. . . . We were all trembling lest we should be held personally accountable for the disastrous result of the battle. General McClellan had been summoned from the West to Washington, and changes in the subordinate commands were announced almost daily. I remember, as a group of officers were talking in the large room of the Arlington House, used as the adjutant-general's office, one evening, some young officer came in with a list of the new brigadiers just announced at the War Department, which embraced the names of Heintzelman, Keyes, Franklin, Andrew Porter, W. T. Sherman, and others, who had been colonels in the battle, and all of whom had shared the common stampede. Of course, we discredited the truth of the list; and Heintzelman broke out in his usual voice, 'By —, it's all a lie! Every mother's son of you will be cashiered.' We all felt he was right, but, nevertheless, it was true; and we were all announced in general orders as brigadier-generals of volunteers [i. 191]."

Sherman soon left the eastern armies, being appointed to the army of the Cumberland under the orders of an old friend, and making it an especial condition that he should be employed in a subordinate capacity. But his senior soon broke down under what Sherman calls "the mental torture" of his command, to which the latter succeeded; and at this point of his narrative he discusses calmly the account of his own insanity, of which the local papers were full, and his book gives a clearer picture than we have ever seen presented before, of the difficulties and worry that beset the generals who had to organise the armies raised in that part of the country, amid a population partly hostile, and while the Washington Government was acting with feeble uncertain movement, still failing to realise the extent of the difficulties to be encountered and of the measures needed to overcome them. Eventually, however, as

we know, a huge army, or rather congeries of armies, was raised in the West and placed under the command of Grant; Sherman, whose rise in public estimation was slow but steady, being advanced from the charge of a division to that of an army corps, and eventually to that of a separate army. It was with these armies, too, as we know, that the Washington Government first began to make head against the Confederacy, till finally Sherman's successes made him, next to Grant, the foremost man in America.

It would be impossible, in this place, to discuss the strategic or tactical aspect of the protracted campaigns in which the author was engaged; nor is that the view presented in these volumes, which are strictly what they are styled, personal memoirs. Indeed, to follow intelligently the narrative here given involves on the reader's part a considerable previous acquaintance with the events described. Nor do they solve the problem which must present itself to every student of military history, namely, what were the relative qualities of the armies which fought in this war, as compared with the standard of military efficiency aimed at among European States? Judged by the powers of marching displayed, and the toils undergone in the way of military works, as for example at Vicksburg, the quality of the troops would seem to be very high, and they took their punishment well, suffering losses in the numerous pitched battles of the war, which it might be thought would have disorganised even a better disciplined army. And yet the fact that the Northern troops were never successful except when they had the advantage of greatly superior numbers, and that they so frequently suffered defeat when the odds were enormously in their favour, is altogether contrary to the traditions of European warfare, the experience in which goes all to show that no degree of valour and discipline will suffice to make up for great inferiority of numbers, if the other side consists of reasonably good troops. And the necessary inference seems to be that the American armies on both sides never succeeded throughout the war in overtaking the confusion and difficulty with which they started, in having to improvise everything. Officers rose to high command without ever having mastered the duties of subordinates, and thus the first elements of discipline, the self-respect arising when each man knows his place and his work in the official chain, must have been wanting. But, by general testimony, the best disciplined and most efficient force in the Union was the army which, under Sherman's command, marched through the South, and proved such a potent instrument for putting an end to the war. This must have been really an army in every sense of the word, wherein general and soldiers regarded each other with mutual respect.

Perhaps the most conspicuous feature in this great war, after its magnitude, and the stubbornness with which it was fought out, was the political moderation which distinguished the victorious leaders; the absence of any unnecessary cruelty or severity in the time of triumph. No one set a more admirable example in this respect than Sherman. His humanity is as marked as his

sagacity, and we may add as his modesty. These memoirs are brimful of illustrations on this head. He was thought an alarmist and insane, because he reported at the beginning of the war that 200,000 men would be needed to put down the rebellion, as he styled it, in the west; at a later period it was his office to moderate the excessive zeal and vigour of the triumphant Government of Washington.

Very characteristic is his advice to the editor of a Memphis newspaper, when his headquarters were at that city in 1862:—

"Use your influence to re-establish system, order, government. . . . If I find the press of Memphis actuated by high principle and a sole devotion to their country, I will be their best friend; but if I find them personal, abusive, dealing in innuendoes and hints at a blind venture, and looking to their own selfish aggrandisement and fame, then they had better look out; for I regard such persons as greater enemies to their country and to mankind than the men who, from a mistaken sense of State pride, have taken up muskets, and fight us about as hard as we care about. In haste, but in kindness, yours, etc." (i. 270).

Very shrewd, too, is the analysis of the different classes which made up the inhabitants of the Southern States (i. 336):—

"First, the large planters. . . . I know we can manage this class, but only by action. . . . Nothing but the logic of events touches their understanding. . . . If our country were like Europe, crowded with people, I would say it would be easier to replace this class than to reconstruct it, subordinate to the policy of the nation; but, as this is not the case, it is better to allow the planters, with individual exceptions, gradually to recover their plantations. . . . and to adapt themselves to the new order of things."

Second, the small farmers, mechanics, &c., who were essentially tired of the war, and would shirk back home if they could. Third, the Union men of the South, who give no assistance or information, and are loudest in their complaints at the smallest excesses of the soldiers:—

"Fourth, the young blood of the South; sons of planters, lawyers about towns, good billiard-players and sportsmen, men who never did work and never will. War suits them, and the rascals are brave fine riders, bold to rashness, and dangerous subjects in every sense. They care not a sou for niggers, land, or anything. They hate Yankees *per se*, and don't bother their brains about the past, present, or future. . . . This is a larger class than most men suppose, and they are the most dangerous set of men that this war has turned loose upon the world. They are splendid riders, first-rate shots, and utterly reckless. Stewart, John Morgan, Forrest, and Jackson, are the types and leaders of this class. These men must all be killed or employed by us before we can hope for peace. . . ."

When the Confederate cause was crushed, the generals not unnaturally took a more generous view of the situation than the civil government, and the terms which Grant made with Lee, and Sherman with Johnston, were repudiated by the President and the War Department. Sherman had proposed to guarantee a general amnesty on condition of the disbandment of the Confederate army, whereas all that the Government at Washington would authorise was that the disbanded soldiers should be permitted to return to their homes. Mr. Stanton's disallowance of the conditions offered

by General Sherman to the Confederates, and his orders that hostilities should be pressed against them to the utmost, were publicly notified in a way most humiliating to that officer, especially when the splendid services which he had rendered to his country are considered, and Sherman's brilliant campaigns came to an end under a sort of slur, from which, however, he has long since been cleared in the estimation of both Europe and America.

There were those among us, at the time of the great civil war, who hoped that it would end in the independence of the South, not so much from sympathy for that side, as from the belief that in the spectacle of two rival nations in the West facing each other across several thousand miles of border, there would be found a guarantee for the continued independence, if not the political supremacy, of England. Those who are still in that way of thinking must surely, we may hope, be few. Whatever may have been the merits of the quarrel in the first place, the final issue of the war has been a blessing to the world. When we look at the state of Europe, and see how one great war becomes merely the forerunner of another to be still more momentous and destructive; how we seem to be getting further and further from the chance of peace, as whole nations are taken away from the work of life to be used in the work of death, and the neatest way of killing our fellow-creatures occupies every day more and more attention: one might despair for the future of humanity if we could not turn to the opposite picture presented by the western world. There, at any rate, we have an instance where a cruel war has yet led to a lasting peace; and in the spectacle of a great continent peopled by an undivided nation, which has had the firmness and fortitude to put down internal dissensions at any cost, we have surely a political condition which is immeasurably superior to that presented by Europe, where the different nations, all armed to the teeth, are only waiting for the chances of fortune to be on their side to fly at each others' throats. The condition of the United States shows happily that this degraded condition is not an essential condition of humanity. And men like Sherman, who gave up their peaceful occupations in soberness and sorrow, and took to war in order to make war impossible in their country for the future, are patriots in the truest and most noble sense.

G. CHESNEY.

*Reisen in der Asiatischen Türkei.* Von Julius Seiff, Civil-Ingenieur. (Leipzig: Hinrichs, 1875.)

M. SEIFF'S account of his travels in some of the less frequented portions of Syria and Asia Minor belongs to a class of books far more common in Germany than in England. Painstaking, observant, and intelligent, he evidently noted down with minute diligence all that he saw, and has given the result of his observations faithfully to the world, without any attempt to dress them up in the style required, or supposed to be required, in this country by the ordinary class of circulating-library readers. But every such record of the impressions of a traveller

through countries still little frequented, and as yet free from the irruption of the ordinary tourist, has a sterling value, and will always add something to our imperfect knowledge of districts abounding in interest of every kind.

With regard to Asia Minor, indeed, the work of M. Seiff has lost the attraction of novelty to the English reader from his having been forestalled by his fellow-traveller, Mr. Davis, whose book we reviewed a few months ago. The two made the whole tour through the south-western provinces of Anatolia together, and hence we cannot expect to find much in the observations of the one that had not already found expression in the pages of the other. Probably, however, there are but few readers of English books of travel in Germany, as we know that there are very few readers of German travels in England. There is, therefore, little doubt that there was room for both; and that the persons who will suffer by having to travel a second time over the track so recently traversed will be too few to require much consideration.

A portion also of M. Seiff's travels in Syria lay through scenes and places that, though not so thoroughly hackneyed as Palestine and the adjoining coasts, are yet so familiar to the English reader that he will be apt to be impatient at the minuteness of detail with which they are described by our author. The temples of Baalbek, and the porticoes of Palmyra, have been so often visited and so often described by English tourists within the last forty years that it is difficult to add anything new to the impressions we already possess: while travellers would do well to remember that no amount of verbal delineation will ever impress on the minds of their readers those vivid pictures which they have themselves carried away from the reality.

His journey through Northern Syria, from Homs to Aleppo, and thence by Antioch to Alexandretta, is much more interesting, as the line of route is one that is rarely followed; and though none of the localities visited are altogether undescribed, we have no doubt that his descriptions of many of them will be practically new to the greater part of his readers. Among these striking ruins at El Barah especially attracted his attention, from their presenting the unique spectacle of the remains of a large town, of massive and solid construction, and in a state of preservation almost equal to those of Pompeii, but of which the history and even the very name are totally unknown. All that can be said is that from their style of construction they may be referred to the period from the fifth to the tenth century, and that the presence of two churches unequivocally assigns them to a Christian people. It is probable that they, in common with the interesting ecclesiastical remains at Kalat Siman, which were also visited by M. Seiff on his way from Aleppo to Antioch, were deserted by the inhabitants after the first Mohammedan invasion of Syria in the seventh century, and have remained untouched ever since. Many similar groups of ruins, though of less importance, are met with throughout the mountain country of Northern Syria, and "in their dreary soli-



tude produce an impression of indescribable melancholy."

M. Seiff was destined to carry away a still more melancholy impression, from being almost an eye-witness of one of those great natural calamities that have in all ages been the scourge of Northern Syria. On his route from Aleppo to Antioch he received intelligence that the latter city had been "almost utterly destroyed" by an earthquake the day before (March 3, 1872). Great damage had been done by the same shock at Aleppo, while the travellers, who were making a *détour* through the mountains, had felt nothing of the kind. The intelligence, as usual, proved to be somewhat overcharged, and though a large part of the town lay in ruins, and thousands of the unfortunate inhabitants were deprived of house and home, while hundreds had perished in the catastrophe, the greater part of the mosques, and even the tall, slender minarets rose over the masses of confused rubbish, which had once been walls and houses, erect, if not uninjured—a circumstance from which M. Seiff justly drew the conclusion that the manner in which the ordinary houses had crumbled into shapeless heaps of *débris* was due not so much to the violence of the shocks as to the wretched construction of the dwellings themselves.

It is a characteristic trait of the state of society in these countries that the lawless inhabitants of the neighbouring mountains immediately descended upon the unhappy city to plunder whatever they could gather amid the ruins. "It is not here, as with you in Europe," observed the Kaimakan to M. Seiff, "where, in the case of similar calamities, collections are made to relieve the unfortunate sufferers. Here, their neighbours only seek to plunder them of what little is left to them." The Kaimakan, however, seems to have exercised a praiseworthy vigilance in sending out troops on all sides to guard the ruined city, who in their turn displayed their zeal by keeping up a dropping fire, though no enemy made his appearance.

Among the provinces of the Turkish Empire which were visited by M. Seiff, unquestionably the least known is the island of Cyprus. Though the remarkable results of the excavations which have been carried on upon some of the ancient sites by the English and American Consuls, Mr. Lang and M. de Cesnola, have recently drawn attention to the promising character of the island as a mine of archaeological discoveries, it is still wholly untrodden ground to the tourist, while it has never yet been subjected to a regular exploration by any competent traveller, who would do for it what was done for the neighbouring island of Crete by Mr. Pashley. It must be admitted that, according to M. Seiff's experience, it offers far less attraction to the ordinary traveller than the sister island. Whatever may still remain to reward the labours of the excavator, none of the ancient sites present ruins of any striking character or interest. A single corner of a wall, built of colossal blocks of stone, but having no trace of architectural decoration, is all that remains of the famous temple of Aphrodite at Paphos; and though the site of Salamis, once the most important city in the island, has long been abandoned

and desolate, it is occupied only by a chaotic mass of fragments of hewn stone, lying scattered amidst tangled brushwood.

Nor does the beauty or richness of the scenery appear to be such as to compensate for the deficiency of antiquarian interest. M. Seiff hardly makes sufficient allowance for the time of year at which he travelled in the island, and when he complains of the want of foliage and verdure in the neighbourhood of Larnaca, it is but fair to remember that he landed there in the middle of January. Still the fact remains that the broad plain, which extends across the island from the Bay of Morphu to that of Famagosta, is almost wholly uncultivated, and affords only scanty pasture to flocks of sheep and goats, though the richness of the gardens and orchards, wherever due diligence has been applied to their cultivation, shows that there is no reason to suppose that Cyprus is in any degree inferior to Crete in natural advantages, or to doubt the statements of ancient writers concerning its great fertility.

The most picturesque part of the island is the western extremity, where the central chain of mountains approaches the sea, and the journey across these to the northern coast presented scenery of a very striking character. The traveller is indebted for the power of following this interesting route to the existence of several monasteries at a great elevation among the mountains, which afford him shelter and scanty fare; while one of them, the highest of all, named Kikko—at an elevation of more than 3,500 feet above the sea—is so celebrated as a place of pilgrimage that a well-beaten path leads up to it from the sea-coast on both sides. Unfortunately the forests which clothed the mountain sides in ancient times and furnished the kings of Egypt with timber for building their fleets during several centuries, have almost entirely disappeared, and the scanty remnants are rapidly perishing under the ruthless axe of the peasants, who destroy noble pine-trees for the purpose of procuring a little rosin. It is a painful experience which is continually recurring to the traveller, both in the Greek and Turkish provinces, that where almost all the advantages of civilisation are wanting, one of its worst accompaniments is to be found in the rapid disappearance of those magnificent forests which once contributed so much both to the beauty and fertility of the country.

E. H. BUNBURY.

SIR JOHN RERESBY.

*Memoirs of Sir John Reresby of Thrybergh, Bart., M.P. for York, etc., 1634-1689.* Written by himself. Edited from the original MS., by James J. Cartwright, M.A. Cantab., of H. M. Public Record Office, author of "Chapters of Yorkshire History." (London: Longmans & Co., 1875.)

MR. CARTWRIGHT has done good service in rendering these memoirs more accessible. They had become scarce, the latter of the two editions bearing date 1813. Besides, on the original MS. coming into the possession of the Trustees of the British Museum, two years ago, it was compared with the printed version, and "not only had great alterations been made in Reresby's lan-

guage and manner of narration, but also much interesting matter had been altogether omitted." The present edition, therefore, claims to be a "substantially new work."

The Reresby MSS. (29440-3) are in four volumes, containing, besides the consecutive autobiography which starts in Mr. Cartwright's Chapter II., the account of the family from which he has taken the narrative of his Chapter I., the rough draft of the earlier portion of the *Memoirs*, and the (intended) dedication of the whole to the writer's uncle, Sir Tamworth Reresby. Mr. Cartwright, modestly avoiding the too prevalent tendency to over-illustration, has been too sparing in his extracts from the interesting series of letters from Reresby to Halifax, placed at his disposal by Earl Spencer. The reader would have been grateful for information as to Reresby from other sources than his own writings. The index is poor. It would have been better to follow the MS., in putting the year at the head of every page. And is no portrait obtainable?

The "exact words" of the writer are professedly adhered to. No doubt this is the case generally, but anybody acquainted with the edition of 1813 will miss certain coarse but characteristic expressions in the talk between Reresby and Halifax about the Duchess of Portsmouth. Reresby's remark is no loss, but the scandal about Danby and the Duchess might have been mentioned in a note. As it is, Mr. Cartwright's text is ambiguous. Again, no hint being given as to the nature of the operation which Reresby was accused of having ordered his Moor to undergo, it reads as if it were only the fatal result of ordinary medical treatment which put Reresby in peril of life and goods. Delicacy seems out of place when the "exact words" of a Restoration writer are in question; but Sir John offends so little in this respect, that very few passages require modification for the most scrupulous. What offence there is lies not in his mode of telling, but in what he has to tell.

To the writer, the chief business was autobiography, and the interesting illustrations of manners with which the work abounds are merely *obiter dicta*. In the dedicatory page of the MS. he says: "I shall only draw the gross lines of my own little story without any other gloss or embellishment than that of truth, which shall be an ornament to the narrative whatever it be to the person."

Sir John Reresby was born April 21, 1634. He came of a race of Yorkshire squires that had held the manor of Thrybergh since the days of Henry III. They were a proud, highbanded, mettlesome folk. His great-grandfather, knighted by Elizabeth, had quarrelled with his wife and son, and had been fined 1,000*l.* for pulling Sir William Wentworth's ears on the bench at Rotherham Sessions. Nearly all the Reresby wives were masterful and not too scrupulous. Generation after generation, mother defrauded son of money and goods. Sir John's father had paid dearly for his "malignancy," and his impoverished heir found it prudent to be very cautious in his intercourse with exiled Royalty, as he travelled about to the Hague and Paris during the Common-

wealth. On the Restoration, he found his relations at Whitehall, and began life. But he says remorsefully: "I did not pursue my own advantage at that time as I might have done. I went to Court more to converse and look about me than to be so assiduous or diligent near those princes as I ought to have been." His reformation in this particular was earnest and thorough.

Reresby was always ready to listen to the arguments of power. He thought the country party—two of whom, Lord Russell and Lord Cavendish, had "conducted him into the House"—had "much reason in their debate." But when Danby, who was then "gaining votes more by purchase than affection," took him in hand, he listened deferentially to the minister's asseverations of the King's intention to govern by law. Soon after, Charles himself condescended to repeat the assurance, and to analyse, for Reresby's benefit, the composition of the country party. "Rogues all" was the burden of the King's discourse. It was his favourite theme, and Reresby on another occasion, heard it exemplified by instances of episcopal hypocrisy.

The character of Charles II., given in Mr. Green's *Short History of England*, is one of the most successful likenesses in that brilliant series of miniatures. It is there said that the King's "persistence carried out his aims in a tentative irregular fashion, which it was as hard to detect as to meet." This trait is curiously illustrated by the passage in these memoirs, wherein Reresby describes the perplexities of Halifax from the King's unsteadiness and harkening to back-door counsels, and narrates the conversation next day with Danby in the Tower—Danby, too, complaining of the uncertainty of the King's humour. They both experienced how "close the King could be when he found it necessary." And he generally did find it necessary, since he was determined to carry out a policy which was hampered by mere vague suspicion of his design, and would have involved him in utter ruin had its extent been known.

Since Charles was a brilliant rogue, people were inclined to give the dull James the credit of being honest. This was Reresby's opinion for a long time, till he found that the Duke's "smiles were not always real." Both brothers knew how, by personal courtesies and flattering distinctions, to keep alive the expectations of a useful man like Reresby. At one time James condescends to ride after his runaway horse; at another Charles walks about Newmarket with him, and "observed I had but thin shoes, and advised me to get a stronger pair, to prevent getting cold, which I here mention as an example of that prince's great goodness and care of those persons who came near him, however inconsiderable." On other occasions Charles assured him of his affection, and declared his intention to "stick to his friends."

Reresby obtained his appointment of governor of Burlington by dexterously drawing an opinion from James that the fort of Burlington was useful, and then going to my Lord Treasurer (who had denied its utility) with the Duke's opinion and recommendation. But he had to wait nearly six years for the fulfilment of the promise, not only watching all the fluctua-

tions of Court influence, but keeping up his importance by Parliamentary services. He vigorously defended Danby in the debates which ended in the Treasurer's impeachment; and at the instance of the King stood for the next Parliament. He was elected "by a Providence," which did not seem so manifest when his election was declared void. In his disappointment he had sad thoughts for his country; "the state of the kingdom and government looked very melancholy."

The times were certainly troublous and ticklish, requiring an alertness in turning and tacking which must have been fatiguing even to the supple Reresby. Thus, if Monmouth were set up as his uncle's rival in the succession, and if nobody could tell how Charles would go, Sir John had to pay cautiously balanced attentions to each, entertaining Monmouth on his return from Scotland, and waiting on James as he journeyed thither.

Reresby's energy in tracing out the murderers of Thynne relieved Charles from the embarrassing suspicion entertained by the "anticourt party" that the victim intended was not Thynne, but their leader Monmouth. The fruit of his long court attendance was thus suddenly ripened, and he was made governor of York. Hyde had endeavoured to cut down the salary, but Sir John's application to Charles procured him the "full emoluments" of the post. Reresby's queer *Te Deum* runs thus:—

"And here have I reason to praise Almighty God that, considering I had no great relations or friend to assist or help me, but those God had raised up to me by my own industry: no extraordinary parts, and a very mean figure or person; he was pleased to give me so honourable and profitable an employment when men much exceeding me in quality, merit, and in service to the Crown were ready to starve for bread."

In one of the MSS. he enumerates nine commissions and employments he had from that "great and benign prince" Charles II., all of which James continued to him, and gave him besides the captaincy of a troop of horse.

With his "great and gracious master's departure out of this world," the main interest of Reresby's *Memoirs* ceases. He continues to act on inspirations "from above," as he significantly phrases it. He saw the coming troubles, and his ambition began to cool. "Could I have persuaded myself to come up to the point that some did, I had a fairer opportunity of raising myself now than ever; but I was convinced that safety was better than greatness."

Reresby's prospects were blighted by the Revolution. He had been really averse from it, as an uncomfortable derangement of his plans, and had deprecated in a half-hearted way the violent measures which had made it necessary. When it was accomplished he found himself coldly looked on by both parties. He was not unreasonably suspected of having connived at the surrender of York, and known to have sent some of his likeliest tenants to James at Southampton. It was some time before he could get admission to William's presence. His introducer, Halifax, was also facing both ways. A mysterious "lady"—was it the Countess

of Dorchester?—was entrusted by James with the office of tampering with Halifax. She went roundly to work, accusing Halifax of double-dealing in having pretended anger at James's flight, which he had himself hastened by alarms of violence intended to the King. Halifax made friends with this emissary, in case he should need her good offices, and "took care always to speak very respectfully of King James."

Reresby's loyalty to the new order of things was still more suspected when 400 of his brother's men deserted—it was said at their colonel's instigation. "It was very hard for one who did not come early and heartily into the present government to live either in town or country without censure." He urged Halifax to undertake for him, but William seemed to require better assurance. Eager for employment, he revived his old suit to be sent out as envoy. Halifax advised him to have patience for two or three months, "to see what became of things." In less than a fortnight Reresby took his journey, of which the record remains in Thrybergh Church—"died May 12, 1689." It is like the fall of a trapdoor in the Vision of Mirza.

The *Memoirs* lack the nobility and stable worth of Evelyn, and the utter frankness of Pepys. There is a reticence throughout which entitles the reader to regard what is written as the deliberate expression of the author's mind, and not as easy gossip imparting confidence and claiming indulgence. What of self-revelation there is, is unconscious. Hallam calls Reresby "cunning and self-interested." The latter epithet seems the more appropriate. His scheming was neither subtle nor deep. He quietly grabbed at everything within his reach. To vary slightly a well-known phrase, he kept "begging away." He had his peculiar vein of piety, having been so far indoctrinated in Christian principles as to acknowledge "that we must sometimes forgive."

In his marriage Sir John rose above his ordinary level of selfishness—foregoing advantage to follow his love—and in his family relations he appears in a favourable light, dealing equitably with his brothers and sisters according to his father's intention, though in straitened circumstances and under no legal obligation to do so. But his paternal solicitude takes an odd turn. He thinks Court is the wickedest place on earth, and he puts his boy under the protection of the Duchess whose depravity he jests upon, because God's grace is sufficient in all places, and poor little Tamworth might have been naughty elsewhere. He carries his wife and daughter to see the favourite shortly after he had witnessed her insult to the Queen. His parental care was duly rewarded. His heir spent the "1,700*l.* a year and 4,000*l.* in moneys" which his father had been "blessed by God Almighty with life and estate to purchase," and died a tapster-prisoner in the Fleet. In the next generation the family name was "clean put out."

His quarrelling temper is perhaps his most notable characteristic. It might be that his "mean person" had the effect which Bacon assigns to deformity, making him "extreme bold." He could not bear a word



or look that savoured of disrespect. From his earliest manhood he disproved the popular fallacy that a bully must be a coward. He gave the lie, and delivered a sword-thrust or a leaden inkstand, on the slightest provocation. There was some prudence in this too, considering the violence of the times, of which many instances are here recorded. His enmity was keener than his friendship. He ruined a postmaster from sheer malice. He nearly quarrelled with his life-long "brother," Sir Henry Goodricke, because the latter had ventured to accuse some aldermen, Reresby's protégés, of notorious crimes. In his public capacity, Reresby was one of those safe, respectable men, who can be depended upon to support any abuse sanctioned "from above." It is some comfort to reflect that their honesty is the measure of their strength, and that there are no readier tools to secure the overthrow of a tyranny than those who have been its most subservient instruments. R. C. BROWNE.

## TWO BOOKS ON WINE.

*From Vineyard to Decanter.* By Don Pedro Verdad. (London: Edward Stanford, 1875.)

*The Wines of the World.* By Henry Vizetelly. (London: Ward, Lock & Tyler, 1875.)

*From Vineyard to Decanter* is the fanciful title of a little book on sherry, written by a gentleman who assumes the *nom de plume* of "Don Pedro Verdad." We can cordially recommend it as giving a very readable and truthful account of the growth and manufacture of the wine which has been for three centuries the favourite of this country, notwithstanding which, an astonishing amount of ignorance prevails on the subject. Don Pedro has some amusing remarks on the number of gentlemen now-a-days who, having had no technical education, but merely on the strength of "a good connexion," think themselves qualified to enter the wine trade: and these observations at the present time are not uncalled for. The wine departments of co-operative stores for the same reason incur the author's indignation; he maintains—and we believe rightly—that even on the score of cheapness these societies do not compare with first-class wine-merchants, while as to excellence it is impossible to rest with confidence on the choice of an unskilled committee. We suspect, however, that the sting of the book is in the tail, where the author decries published analyses in general, and the much advertised "Spécialité Sherry" in particular. He argues that, even if every particular of the analysis is true, there is no evidence as to the quality, value, or character of the wine, and, in fact, nothing to prove that it is wine at all. The author's method is very simple: "Do you want to know if the wine is good? Taste it. Does it agree? Drink a bottle at dinner, and then you will get knowledge truly empirical, positive, and not to be disputed." As we are mercifully inclined, we would say something more than half a bottle; and we wish that our host at many an entertainment during the last six months had subjected his wines to so simple a test.

*The Wines of the World* is the amplified report of the English Commissioner on the wines exhibited at Vienna in 1873; and the task of Mr. Vizetelly and his colleagues was certainly no light one. Mind and body alike recoil from the idea of tasting 20,000 specimens of fermented drinks; and we can well believe that the thirty jurors, divided into four or more separate groups, were nearly two months performing their colossal task. We should like to know which of the wines were judged towards the close of this period, for we confess to feeling a little sceptical as to the purity of taste that could be preserved at the end of such a "dégustation." Bordeaux had the advantage of being taken first, but the jury must have been sadly disappointed to find that not a single sample of Château Lafite was exhibited, nor yet of Château Haut-Brion, the Burgundy of Clarets. With what relish, then, must they have fallen upon Château Margaux, which Mr. Vizetelly describes somewhat unctuously: "Generous without potency, it refreshes the stomach while respecting the head, and boasts of a bouquet that clings to the lips and perfumes the breath." To this and the next in merit—Château Latour—medals of progress were awarded, as also to Gruaud-Larose-Sarget. From hence downwards the wines of the Gironde seem to have been well represented, and Mr. Vizetelly gives many interesting particulars relating to their growth and history. He also adds a classification of the vintages of the grand red wines of the district since 1840:—Very good: 1841, '44, '46, '47, '48, '51, '58, '64, '65, '68, '70; Good, 1857, '62, '63; Bad and indifferent, 1840, '42, '43, '45, '49, '50, '52, '53, '54, '55, '56, '59, '60, '61, '66. It is noteworthy that in a good year the bulk of the wine is exported to England, while in a bad year it goes to Germany.

Passing over the Burgundies, the wines of the Côte du Rhone, and those of the South of France, we come to the Champagnes. These may almost be said to have been conspicuous by their absence, considering that none of the leading houses were represented. There was no Cliquot, no Roederer; neither Mumm, Moët, Marceaux, Pommery, Perrier-Jouët, Piper, Dentz and Geldermann, Giesler, Heidseck, Ruinart, nor Roussillon put in an appearance. Some excellent wine, however, was exhibited by minor firms, and the palm awarded to some of 1857, "rather deep in colour, with a full perfume and rich flavour, whose constitution was by no means impaired by its age of sixteen years," as would have been the case with a wine of less high character. Mr. Vizetelly bestows a good deal of praise on sparkling wines from other districts, which are offered at about half the cost of the best Champagnes, and advocates their more extensive use. We cannot say we agree with him; we would gladly see the present fashion of drinking champagne at every festive meeting expire, if we could be sure on the few occasions it was offered us that it was a good wine from the veritable district. Cheap Champagnes can only be divided into two classes: those (like St. Peray) which are pure are not nice, and those which are not nasty are not pure. St. Peray is distinguished by no particular characteristic except extreme

sweetness, and is scarcely tolerable even with soda-water. Vouvray is thin, weak, and flavourless; Saumur is a light thin wine, with a taste recalling the gooseberry rather than the grape. The best of them is the Jura wine, but of even the best it can only be said that it resembles some good fruit-drink like perry, but is not so nice.

Travellers on the Rhine, who order the wines of the country with confidence because they are "on the spot," should read Mr. Vizetelly's account of how during the vintage, at night, when the moon has gone down, boats glide over the Rhine freighted with a soapy substance manufactured from potatoes, and called by its owners "sugar;" how this is mixed with water, often from the Rhine itself, and thrown into the vats containing the must, afterwards to be sold as the purest and most genuine of wines:—

"In fact," says Mr. Vizetelly, "a tourist with no more experience of Rhine wines than that gained from German hotels, where, with occasional exceptions, the qualities are ordinarily of the lowest, and the labels on the bottles rarely indicate the real name of the wine he is drinking, may make up his mind that he knows nothing of the finer growths which have procured for the Rheingau its merited renown."

Of the British colonies, Australia alone seems likely to become a great wine-producing country; indeed, Australian wines secured a far larger percentage of high-class rewards than fell to the share of any other country. One wine in particular, akin to Hermitage, struck the French experts with such astonishment that they insisted it was a fine French wine which had been matured by a voyage to Australia and back again to Europe. And they required a distinct affirmation from the agent in charge that this was not the case, before they would resume their labours of tasting. Our own somewhat limited experience of Australian wines is that they are pleasant to the taste, and of good strength and bouquet, with none of that thinness about them that might be expected; but there is little variety among different specimens, and the manufacturers seem to aim at blending a good passable wine throughout, rather than trying to produce individual excellence. Mr. Vizetelly ascribes most of their faults to defects of making and want of knowledge in maturing the wines, and advises the wine-growers to secure the services of able men from the Rhine, where the wines are invariably well-made, and receive perhaps better after-treatment than in any other part of the world.

The following strikes us as very curious:—

"With all the increased consumption of wine in the United Kingdom, a comparison of the quantity drunk during the year 1872 by 1,851,792 Parisians, with the quantity consumed during the same year by 31,628,338 inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, shows how little a wine-drinking people we really are. The Parisians drank no less than 85,849,304 gallons of wine, equal to 40½ gallons per head, whereas the entire population of the United Kingdom drank merely 16,878,169 gallons, or less than one fifth of the quantity consumed by the inhabitants of Paris alone, and only a little beyond half a gallon per head."

F. M. ALLEYNE.

*L'Histoire de France.* Par M. Guizot. Tome IV. (Paris: Hachette et Cie., 1875.)

THE posthumous volume of M. Guizot's History carries the narrative from the death of Henry IV. to the death of Lewis XIV. It need hardly be said that it is distinguished by the same qualities as those which marked its predecessors. There is the same clearness of exposition, the same readiness to sympathise with very various forms of life and thought, the same preference of that which is noble and elevating to that which is base and vicious. M. Guizot, if he knows how to interest us by the recital of events, knows too how to penetrate to those aspirations of the human soul round which events are grouped, and by which events are, to a great extent, moulded. If we leave for a moment the wars and political struggles which fill so large a part of this epoch, and listen to the still small voice of the ideas by which it was influenced, we are told by M. Guizot (391) that—

"En dehors de la simple soumission à l'Eglise catholique, trois grandes tendances se sont partagées les esprits sérieux pendant le règne de Louis XIV. ; trois nobles passions ont possédé les âmes pieuses, la liberté, la foi, et l'amour ont été l'essence comme le drapeau du protestantisme, du jansénisme, et du quietisme. C'était au nom de la liberté profonde et native de l'âme, de sa responsabilité personnelle, et de ses rapports directs avec Dieu, que la Réforme était née et avait grandi en France, plus encore qu'en Allemagne et en Angleterre. M. de Saint-Cyran, chef et fondateur du jansénisme, abandonna sans réserve l'âme humaine à la volonté souveraine de Dieu ; sa foi s'éleva triomphante de la chair et du sang, et ses fidèles, méprisant les joies et les attaches de la terre, ne vécurent plus que pour l'éternité. Mme. Guyon et Fénelon, moins ardents et moins austères, trouvèrent dans le tendre mysticisme de l'amour pur ce secret de Dieu que cherchent toutes les âmes pieuses ; au nom de l'amour divin, les quietistes renoncèrent à toute volonté propre, comme les jansénistes au nom de la foi."

Why was it that these tendencies of serious minds, these noble passions of pious souls, made so little impression on France as a whole? Modern England sprang from a union between the Puritanism and the Churchmanship of the seventeenth century. In France, Jansenism and Quietism are dead, and Protestantism has no hold on the average mind of the country. To solve the problem, to trace the causes which sent the French mind in another direction altogether, is to write the history of France.

M. Guizot has something to say on the question. But it must be acknowledged that, as a whole, his last volume is disappointing in a way in which his earlier volumes gave reason to expect better things. It is a succession of admirably told episodes with no historical connexion between them. Certainly an historian is not bound to follow the plan of the mediæval annalists—to interrupt, for instance, the narrative of a military expedition on March 24 to tell how a church was dedicated in some distant province on the 30th, and then to return to an important battle fought on the 31st; but for all that, the chronological order of events can seldom be far departed from with advantage. The business of the historian is to show the connexion of cause and effect; and though he may often be led astray by

mere chronological sequence into the logical pitfall of *post hoc, ergo propter hoc*, he will be sure if he pays no attention to chronology, to set before his bewildered audience a phantasmagoria more or less brilliant of effects without causes, and of causes without effects.

It is not too much to say that M. Guizot in this volume deliberately disregards chronology. He chooses to proceed in another fashion, being probably influenced by the original form in which his work was produced. In teaching his grandchildren he may have thought it advisable to break up his subject into several heads, each of them covering enough ground for a single lesson. Thus, instead of being enabled to watch the development of Richelieu's policy, and to trace the influence of this or that event upon his actions, we have to look at five separate chapters on the King and the Cardinal in connexion with the Court, the Provinces, the Catholics and Protestants, Foreign Affairs, and Literature. The result is deplorable. In the first of these chapters, for instance, we have the rebellion of Montmorenci in 1632. We have to wait till the third chapter to learn anything about Richelieu's statesmanlike treatment of the Protestant insurgents in 1628 and 1629, which made the suppression of Montmorenci's rebellion so easy by attracting the Southern Protestants to the side of the King. Nor is it less strange to find the siege of Rochelle narrated in full, while the English Marriage treaty, the results of which were of no slight weight in bringing on that siege, is left to a future chapter. In one respect this unfortunate arrangement cannot but convey an impression which M. Guizot was certainly far from intending to convey. It is not fair to take all Richelieu's harsh measures towards his opponents at Court and to lay them before the reader before he is called upon to admire his devotion to the interests of his country. We may not condone all acts of tyranny done for a high object. But such acts, if they are done for a high object, ought to be judged more leniently than similar acts done through mere personal greed and selfishness. Cromwell asked to have his face painted, wart and all. M. Guizot in Richelieu's case begins with the wart, and when our disgust is raised, he shows us the rest of the face.

Such a system of writing recoils upon the writer. He loses the fine sense of the living order of things without which he is sure to go astray. Again and again M. Guizot's judgment of Richelieu is based on the most questionable grounds. He follows the *Memoirs*, in spite of Michelet's warning, as if they were to be implicitly trusted. For example, he does not see that Richelieu's policy in demanding toleration for the English Catholics as the price of the hand of the Princess Henrietta Maria, was a disastrous blunder, leading to complications which were almost certain to set the two nations by the ears. He does not see that Richelieu's policy in supporting Bavaria and the League in Germany was another blunder. Charles I., too, has faults enough of his own to answer for, without being accused of deserting Rohan by omitting his name from the treaty of 1629. The fact is that Charles

had every private assurance from France that the French Protestants, and Rohan in particular, would be favourably treated.

These, however, are but matters of detail. The main fault of the book is its want of chronological sequence, a fault which culminates when we hear of the final disasters of Lewis XIV., of the defeat of La Hogue, and the defeat of Blenheim—before we hear of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, which, by depriving the King of the services of his Protestant subjects, had not a little to do with those disasters.

Such faults—and they lie upon the surface—will always prevent the present volume from being a safe guide to the history of France in the seventeenth century. Those who are content with a succession of separate pictures of events which took place in France in the course of that century, or those whose knowledge of history is already sufficiently good to supply the relations of cause and effect from their own mental stores, cannot find a more pleasant and trustworthy guide than M. Guizot.

SAMUEL R. GARDINER.

*Scientific London.* By Bernard H. Becker. (London: Henry S. King & Co., 1874.)

MR. BECKER is fortunate in having chosen an unhackneyed subject, and he deserves credit for seeing that an account of the scientific institutions of London was wanted. He has done his work well as far as it goes, but a much larger volume than his would be required to give anything like an adequate idea of the subject. Its contents first appeared, we believe, week by week, in the pages of *Iron*, but there is nothing on the title-page or in the preface to show that the articles are mere reprints. There is internal evidence, however, in several places that the author has not taken sufficient care to revise his work in its collected form. Thus we read that "Lord Brouncker was the first president; William Ball, the treasurer; John Wilkins and Henry Oldenburg the two secretaries; Sir Robert Moray, and the celebrated Boyle, members of the council;" and are also informed that a sum of money was "finally employed in striking a gold medal of the value of five pounds." The word "medallist" is so frequently misused that Mr. Becker may shield himself under authority when describing Stephen Gray as "the first Copley Medallist," but the expression is none the less wrong, for a medallist is the maker of a medal and not the receiver of one.

The facts are not always correct, as when the original MS. of the *Principia* in the possession of the Royal Society is described as "entirely written by Newton's own hand." It was really the work of an amanuensis with the author's corrections.

Weld's *History of the Royal Society*, and Dr. Bence Jones's Account of the Royal Institution are elaborate monographs on their respective subjects; but with the exception of papers on some of the societies in Knight's *London*, the open ground has remained unoccupied until Mr. Becker came forward to till it. Foreigners have been supplied with the information they required by Dr. Ed. Mailly, of Brussels, who pub-



lished in 1869 a careful account of the scientific institutions of Great Britain and Ireland, which is concise, yet full. A few years before, Comte Achmet d'Héricourt had published in Paris an *Annuaire des Sociétés Savantes de la France et de l'Etranger*, but if we may judge from the English entries, it is far from being an accurate work. Defunct societies are introduced and proper names are sadly travestied. In one place the French public are gravely informed that the Geological and Polytechnic Society of the West *Riding* of Yorkshire is not a "Société hippique."

In Mr. Becker's book there are fourteen chapters, each devoted to the history of a scientific society, and to some extent we can trace in them the history of science in England. First in point of date is Gresham College, founded by the will of Sir Thomas Gresham, in which directions were given for the daily reading of lectures on seven specified subjects. Oliver Cromwell once interfered with the election of a geometry professor, and in a letter to his "loving friends," the Gresham Committee, he told them to await his pleasure in the matter. The Royal Society was long intimately connected with Gresham College, whose professors were *ex officio* fellows of the society, but while the one institution has gone on prospering, the other, through bad management, has fallen to decay. For near two centuries Sir Thomas Gresham's magnificent bequest has done little or no good. The delivery of the lectures has become a mere farce, and at the lecture on geometry which Mr. Becker attended on January 23 of last year, there was an audience of seven persons, four only remaining to the end. The history of the Royal Society is the history of science in England. It grew out of the meetings of a knot of philosophers, whose "invisible college" existed during the political troubles of the Civil Wars. At the Restoration the Society was started with sixty-five members. It afterwards became popular at Court, and the charter under which the Society still acts was granted by Charles II. on April 22, 1663. The King there declares himself the founder. Science was then new, and the grand object of the Society was to try all things and to take nothing for granted, as is expressed by their Horatian motto, "Nullius in verba." The effect was that the meetings were very entertaining, and attended by courtiers and persons we should not expect to hear of there. Prince Rupert took a real interest in them, and the King himself a *dilettante* interest. Some of the investigations seem absurd to us read by the light of modern knowledge, but of the various tracks that were followed by the working fellows very few led to an "impasse." Robert Hooke drew up a list of enquiries for the use of those who might have occasion to visit Greenland or Iceland. It would be interesting to compare these with the scientific instructions that have been given to the officers of the *Alert* and the *Discovery*, but the Arctic Manual certainly does not contain any question such as the following included in Hooke's enquiries: "Whether spirits appear, in what shape, what they say and do; anything of that kind very remarkable, and of good credit?" The

impracticable, however, was soon put aside, and the Society built up for itself a high reputation. The Royal Society was long the only home of science in England, but gradually the different branches, which had greatly increased, were severed from the parent stem. Mr. Becker does not give a correct account of these offshoots, for he writes: "The Royal Astronomical Society was the first of these, and was followed by associations for promoting the study of geology, botany, zoology, geography, and statistics." Now the fact is that the Linnean Society, founded by Sir James Edward Smith in 1788 for the cultivation of zoology and botany, was the first offshoot, and the Royal Astronomical Society did not start into existence until 1820. It is curious that while Sir Joseph Banks, the autocratic President of the Royal Society, was favourable to the formation of the Linnean Society, he fiercely opposed the secession of the astronomers. He refused to recommend Babbage for a seat at the Board of Longitude, on account of the part he had taken in the institution of the Astronomical Society, and induced the Duke of Somerset to decline the office of President on the ground that the child would be the ruin of the parent. Time brings about great changes in opinion, for now the principle of union in division is universally accepted, and it is understood that papers bearing upon broad generalisations should go to the Royal, and those on geological, zoological, botanical, and chemical details to the sectional societies. Time has also brought about changes in the constitution of some societies, and Mr. Becker justly points out that the Society of Arts and the Royal Institution have exchanged objects:—

"Like its younger sister in Albemarle Street, the Society of Arts is a notable instance of that drifting faculty which exercises so great an influence on all human institutions. Launched with widely differing objects on the stream of events, these societies have to a certain measure displaced each other. . . . One single comparison will demonstrate my meaning. In the beginning of the century—under the auspices of Count Rumford—the Royal Institution undertook to improve the dwellings of the working classes, to warm and ventilate workhouses, hospitals, and cottages, and to exhibit and patronise improvements in the economical consumption of fuel and the teaching of culinary science. In the present year the Society of Arts, founded originally to encourage young artists, has offered premiums for the best kinds of culinary and domestic warming apparatus, and has directly fostered attempts to instruct the people of England in the best methods of preparing food."

There is a double action at work in the growth of science; thus, as it becomes more divided in one direction it is more welded in another. What Mr. Justice Grove did for the correlation of the physical sciences others are now doing for the natural history sciences. Scientific men formerly looked with contempt upon the labours of the antiquary, but one of the latest born of the societies—the Anthropological—has helped to draw the antiquary into the fold of science. There is still plenty of popular ignorance, but the scientific taste has grown so fast of late that we seem separated by a gulf from the feeling expressed in Sir John Barrow's famous letter to Ronald, when the latter

pressed the electric telegraph upon the notice of the Admiralty. Barrow acknowledged the receipt of Ronald's letter, but informed him at the same time that the Admiralty had already a *perfect* telegraph, and did not want any other. Mr. Becker's version of this note is, we believe, incorrect.

Mr. Becker gives a short history of the different sciences cultivated by the societies he notices, but his chief object is to deal with the present state of these societies, and his notices of the meetings he attended are lively and truthful. The institutions treated of in this book may be divided into three classes:—1. Those in which science is cultivated for the initiated, as the Royal, Chemical, Telegraphic Engineers' Societies, &c.; 2. Those where science is diffused among the outsiders, as the Royal Institution, Society of Arts, &c., and 3. The teaching establishments, as the Birkbeck Institution, Department of Science and Art, Museum of Practical Geology, &c.

The author writes from too exclusively a West End point of view, and speaks of the East End as if it were a veritable *Ultima Thule*. His remarks on Finsbury are so far from just that one might imagine his steps had never taken him so far eastward. Finsbury Square is certainly not dismal in the sense of dull, and the Circus has always seemed to us to be a charming retreat from the bustle of the streets, and the one agreeable place to live in within the City liberties.

We hope, however, that a second edition of this book will soon be required, and that the author will then take the opportunity of enlarging his plan, and adding in another volume some notice of the many important societies that are now omitted, such as the Geological, Linnean, Astronomical, &c. We may also suggest that a few pages devoted to information about subscriptions, days of meeting, and number of members of each society, would greatly add to the value of the book. At present it does not by any means give a complete view of Scientific London.

HENRY B. WHEATLEY.

#### NEW NOVELS.

*A Narrow Escape*. By Annie Thomas (Mrs. Pender Cudlip). In Three Volumes. (London: Chapman & Hall, 1875.)

*Sir Marmaduke Lorton, Bart.* By the Hon. Albert S. G. Canning. In Three Volumes. (London: S. Tinsley, 1875.)

*Fair, but Not False*. By Evelyn Campbell. In Three Volumes. (London: S. Tinsley, 1875.)

MRS. CUDLIP possesses just enough literary faculty to be able to write stories which are not absolutely unreadable, inasmuch as there is some plot and some character-drawing in them; but her powers are very far indeed from enabling her to write what is worth reading or agreeable to read. Her own judgment passed upon this, her latest book, in a few words of familiar preface addressed to Mr. Edmund Yates, is that it is her "least undeserving work." If that be her candid opinion, the sentence she has passed on its predecessors is a very severe one indeed, for *A Narrow Escape* has no merits whatever apart from the two pieces

of mere knack adverted to above. It is not merely that the English is slipshod and the story uninteresting, but the whole tone is petty, coarse, and vulgar throughout. There is a somewhat large gallery of portraits, without one even fairly pure-minded or honourable character in it. The hero, concerning whose type and actions Mrs. Cudlip obviously changes her views and intentions shortly after his introduction in the first volume, is finally depicted as the very soul of honour, which does not prevent him from luring a motherless girl to compromise herself with him almost irremediably, from telling a lie about another young woman he has in tow, and from keeping up, at the very time he is intending to marry the heroine, two more than platonic attachments to ladies who are certainly made widows during the narrative, but who both preferred him very much to their husbands when alive. The heroine begins her career by riding alone to a railway station to see the hero off after dancing with him the night before, and agrees to go on with him in the train to get married in Paris or elsewhere, regardless of leaving behind a sickly and widowed father. She is pulled up at Paddington by a fellow-passenger, who casually lets her know that Captain Bellairs is already married—a situation appropriated from *Sword and Gown*—and returns home. We are afterwards told that it was all a mistake on the part of her warner; but the context makes it pretty clear that this was an afterthought, and that the original situation was meant to stand, else why any elopement at all, instead of frank application to the lady's father, a distinguished officer in the same service as the lover? The young lady turns up again later, hardened instead of softened by her experience, and throws herself next at the head of her cousin, an engaged man, striving to make him break his plighted word, and only not doing so because he is too vacillating a coward to make up his mind. The lady he does marry, and who dies within a year, is represented as stupid, selfish, and shrewish. His two sisters are one sordid and the other sour and satirical. A young woman who entangles him after his wife's death, and throws him over at the last moment for his sister's wealthy and worthless betrothed, whom she has seduced from his allegiance, is represented as false, crafty, vindictive, and greedy. One of the two widows who try for the hero, at first drawn as gentle and loveable, is finally displayed as selfish, grasping, thankless, and treacherous; and the two most respectable characters in the work are the hard and worldly mother of the secondary hero, and one of the two widows who made love to the principal hero while their husbands were alive. There is another proof of hasty change of plan during the progress of the book through *All the Year Round*. Mrs. Cudlip makes a great sensation of the misery of one of her widows when, on her husband's sudden death, the only will discoverable is one made *before* his marriage, leaving everything to his brother and that brother's children, and her sister-in-law greedily enforces that will to the prejudice of the widow and orphans. Some-

body has plainly told Mrs. Cudlip that marriage voids a will made before it, and that the brother could not have claimed under the will at all unless it had been reaffirmed; and so she has tried to patch the incident right, without any success. She cannot be expected to know law, but she must have read Mr. Wilkie Collins' *No Name*, and ought not to have made such a blunder. The whole presentment of life and character in this book is mean, base, and petty, with no redeeming features introduced; and whether Mrs. Cudlip be drawing her personages from memory or from imagination, she is equally to be pitied. She can undoubtedly do much better if she please, and it is matter of regret to see her real cleverness wasted on producing books of such an unpleasant and inferior type.

To be the author of a thoroughly stupid and uninteresting novel is neither a difficult nor uncommon achievement, but the Hon. Albert Canning has at least the distinction of hitting on a new way of making a book unreadable, instead of keeping in the well-worn rut, so that *Sir Marmaduke Lorton, Bart.*, may defy competition as quite the dullest story of the season. If Mr. Canning had merely contented himself with the narrative, such as it is, having what is intended to be its interest solely dependent on the humours of the domestics in two disreputable London lodging-houses, and had thus cut it down one half, it would still have been heavy and tedious; but he has intensified these qualities by the very effort to give variety. One half of the book, whose whole plot is that a dissipated and frivolous young man about town is murdered for no adequate reason by his brother-in-law, a vicious and bankrupt peer, is written in a jerky style of indirect narration, reading like copious notes from which to put the story together rather than the actual finished tale itself; while the other half is supposed to be from the pen of one of the characters, a Reverend Luke Brandon, a bore and prig of the first magnitude, whose chief employment is acting Boswell at conversations where there is no Johnson present. Bald, dreary prosings at dinners and luncheons on politics, theology, and literature, having no bearing whatever on the story, or on the evolution of character, are set down at remorseless length, and we are expected to listen to commonplace opinions expressed on the comparative merits of Scott, Bulwer, and Dickens as novelists, of Gladstone and Disraeli as Premiers, and of Roman Catholicism and Protestantism as religions, padding being freely supplied by copious extracts from such recondite sources as Macaulay's Essays and the like. No doubt there is some convenience in this, for Mr. Brandon's name at the head of a chapter becomes a notice to skip; but that only affects readers who are capable of taking sufficient interest in the remainder of the book to care for perusing it, and where they are to be found is very hard to say. Mr. Canning declares himself on his title-page to be also the author of an essay on Christian toleration. If he mean that statement as a mute appeal for leniency, well and good; but if he imagine that any intelligent human being, after once getting instalments of that

essay from the Reverend Luke Brandon, is likely to read more of the same kind of stuff in cold blood, with nothing in the shape of a story, however flat, to make it go down, his faith in human patience and simplicity must be almost pathetic.

*Fair but Not False*, is a pleasant, wholesome little tale, slightly melodramatic in part of its plot, and exhibiting frequent tokens of inexperience in the author; but with real promise for the future. It belongs to the same school of novels as those by the lady who has written *St. Olave's*, *Janita's Cross*, *The Blue Ribbon*, and some other tales; not aiming very high, but succeeding in being cheerful and readable in their own modest sphere. The style needs more directness and finish, and its weakest part, as might be expected in a lady's book, is the occasional introduction of phrases intended as humorous asides of the author to the reader, as the puppets of the tale are playing their several parts. But these are chiefly confined to the first volume, dropping away as the story proceeds, while there is true humour of a higher kind, although still slight and far from vivid, in some of the situations and talk which, whether reproduced from life or thought out independently, exhibit some faculty of observation and drawing. The story is not very skilfully pieced together, nor is the machinery for its evolution very happily contrived; but this defect is one which practice will remedy, as the art of constructing plots, where there is any genuine literary faculty, becomes after a time a pure matter of knack, altogether inferior in value and interest, as Mr. Wilkie Collins has satisfactorily established, to the power of drawing character or writing good conversation; a power which this new author displays, not indeed in an exceptional degree, but sufficiently to have enabled her to give her readers pleasure now and hope for greater pleasure hereafter.

RICHARD F. LITTLEDALE.

#### RECENT VERSE.

*Baby May. Home Poems and Ballads.* By W. C. Bennett. (H. S. King & Co.) It was Miss Mitford, if we mistake not, who first drew attention to Dr. Bennett's gift of song, a gift which she exaggerated after her own genial gracious fashion. Her prophecy that the young writer would be universally received as "a richly-gifted poet" has not been fulfilled, but a certain success of which she did not dream he has without doubt attained. Dr. Bennett is the laureate of them that go down into the loud places of the nursery, whose inmates, like cherubim and seraphim, continually do cry, and in the English Mother's cult of the Baby, his poems occupy the office of Hymns Ancient and Modern. No one can describe as he does those—

"Catchings up of legs and arms,  
Throwings back and small alarms,  
Clutching fingers, straightening jerks,  
Twining feet whose each toe works,"

which all womanhood falls down and worships. The result has been unbounded popularity in a stratum of society down to which the best poetry never filters. Nor are his baby poems all his claim to the laurel; he has written a confidentially conjugal collection, entitled "*The Worn Wedding-Ring*." He has painted "*Queen Eleanor's Vengeance*" in popular colours, and with a profusion of obvious moral. He has aided with his verses all sorts of schemes for sanitary and ethical im-



provement, never, in spite of Baby May, ceasing to be sane, straightforward, and manly. It is not difficult to understand how it happens that this, technically speaking, very imperfect poetry has taken so firm a hold of bourgeois popularity. The people undoubtedly like to have their own best thoughts translated for them into simple verse far better than to be forced to listen to what is ever so little above their habit of comprehension. When a writer like Dr. Bennett takes them frankly into his private family life, tells them that Mrs. Bennett's name is Emma, and is confidential about his little boys and girls, he seems to us, perhaps, to be laying himself open to ridicule; but he knows better, he understands his audience, and feels by instinct that they will appreciate and not misuse his genial confidence. After all, it is better to learn these limpid, fresh, and earnest verses, slight and tasteless though they be, than to be drugged with the sentiment of Eliza Cook or fooled with the pompous platitudes of a so-called "Proverbial Philosophy." We cannot refrain from quoting two verses of an address to the poet's wife:—

"Older? Yes, but only dearer  
Loved more deeply with each day,  
Nay, your beauty grows but clearer  
As its radiance fades away;  
Older? dearer with each morn,  
Dearer through all joy, all pain;  
Deeply loved through smiles and sorrow,  
And hopes shared, though hoped in vain.  
"Can I in those eyes be gazing  
And not see how years have given  
Less of earth for my fond praising,  
But, oh! how much more of heaven!  
Softened with a saintly fairness,  
More divine look lip and brow,  
All transfigured to a rareness  
Never seen, dear wife, till now."

*The Messenger.* By Thomas Sinclair, M.A. (Trübner & Co.) This curious poem, written in blank verse that is rarely dull and sometimes very sonorous, is difficult to understand and almost impossible to characterise. It is like the hollow of a wood on a very warm spring day, full of heat, and life, and promise, but too misty and too oppressive to be endured or explored. It is a kind of allegorical dream or vision of a future state of intellectual blessedness under a "Phoebaphroditic Saviour of man," in which Poesy will be the mainspring of life, bringing food, peace, liberty and life to mortals. It is a pity that Mr. Sinclair, who possesses indubitable gifts in writing, cannot free himself from a certain dimness of vision and vagueness of expression that destroy the charm of almost every line he writes. Without style it is impossible to make a mark in literature, and at present he is wholly without it.

*The Tweed and other Poems.* By John Veitch, LL.D. (Glasgow: Maclehose.) Professor Veitch discourses of the Tweed in blank verse that recalls the descriptive poetry of the beginning of this century, a thing now utterly dead and gone. The success of the *Task* induced Grahame to write the *Sabbath*, Bowles to write *Combe Ellen*, Amos Cottle to "sing of Wales," and other little people to write long landscape poems that were quite in the fashion then and are now unreadable. The taste for a country life and for simple and true description of nature was at first insatiable, and the barest notes of hill and valley, river and lake, found a welcome. But Wordsworth and Shelley came, and after tasting wine like theirs, who could return to the toast-and-water of the topographical poets? After all, which of them excelled or approached the terse vigour and point of their legitimate father, that Sir John Denham who immortalised Cooper's Hill! Professor Veitch dedicates many lines to the glorification of Leyden, the orientalist and poet, a man decidedly above the average, but who seems a mere pigmy by the side of Sir Walter Scott. Yet Professor Veitch does not hesitate to make the astounding statement that "as far as massive intelligence is concerned,

Leyden's promise" (he lived to be thirty-six) "was greatly higher than Scott's realisation."

*Sonnets and the Consolation to Livia.* By Philip Acton. (Longmans.) As it is difficult to say anything good or bad about Mr. Acton's verses, we shall content ourselves with quoting an average sonnet on the fashionable topic of the day.

BURIAL.

"When I shall sink to everlasting sleep,  
Place not my vestiges upon a pyre  
To be consumed by scientific fire,  
Nor plunge them in the whirlpools of the deep,  
Nor raise around my residue a heap  
Of brick or stone, and plumber's work, to tire  
And cheat the little worm of a desire  
About its poor inheritance to creep;  
But lay me gently on my mother's breast,  
In such slight coverture as shall embower  
Yet not withhold me from her fond embrace;  
There let me, naturally, take my rest,  
With her embroidered mantle o'er my face,  
Tissued with many a sprig and tiny flower?"  
But what will the parish authorities say?

*Echoes of Old Cumberland. Poems and Translations.* By Mary Powley. (Benrose.) Miss Powley writes of Cumberland with all the grace, knowledge and enthusiasm that mark Mr. Stokes' pleasant books of verse about Cornwall. Her book naturally addresses a local audience, but there is much in it that appeals to us all, and much that has more than a transitory importance. Her notes,—how pleasant and how old-world a thing it is to meet with wise and learned notes in a book of verse,—are full of erudition and delightful gossip, and so eager has she been to learn all she can about the antecedents of her beloved county, that she has made herself mistress of the modern Scandinavian tongues. In returning from Denmark she has filled her apron with flowers of Danish verse, and gives us, rendered in her strong Cumberland English, various fine lyrics of such unfamiliar poets as Oehlenschläger and Heiberg, Hertz and Ingemann. We recommend all our readers who propose to visit the Lakes this autumn to take Miss Powley's volume with them, and gossip with her about Cross-Fell, Langanhye, Hartside, and the rest.

*This World and the Next: A Dramatic Poem.* By Myles Macphail. (A. Hall & Co.)—"A Mad World, my Masters!" The author is so much afflicted with the "convulsion of established thought," men acting, to use his own perspicuous language—

"As if Creation did exist itself  
And God was nowhere,"

that he has written an uncouth drama to explain what will come of it all. Blanche de Vere, Percy Howard, a professor of history from New Zealand, Death, Time, a Guardian Angel and other tourists visit the ruins of what once was London, and they talk promiscuous nonsense together for the space of 204 pages. They are joined by Satan, who is the most pleasant and chatty of the party. We had marked one or two preposterous remarks of his for quotation, but they are hardly funny enough to be copied.

*Light, Shade, and Toil.* Poems by William C. Cameron. With an introductory note by the Rev. W. C. Smith, D.D. (Glasgow: Maclehose.) The best pieces in this volume remind us strongly of the best in Dr. Bennett's; the domestic confidences are similar, the tone of feeling identical. Dr. Walter Smith, in a preface that is the very perfection of modesty and good taste, does not attempt to force Mr. Cameron's poems upon us as very exalted or very original, but he claims for them the credit of being kindly, manly and healthy, and that this is true we heartily admit. We learn that Mr. Cameron is a working shoemaker, but education of the head as well as the heart is fortunately too common in Scotland for such graceful gifts as his to be exceptional in the way that Clare's or Bloomfield's were. On the

whole we think that his verses in the Scottish dialect are the best, as being the most simple and direct, and unmarred by the somewhat faded finery of language that he has hung on some of the English ones. This instruction to a little babe-girl, who is learning to walk, occurs in the very first poem; the caution it contains, and the tact with which the circumstance of Jessie's not being able to walk alone is condoned, are not to be excelled:—

"Ah! cannie—cannie, Jessie dear,  
Place feety weel an' sure,  
A slippy'ry stane lies by the cheek  
O' almost ilka door!  
Aye has it been—and aye will be—  
That mony a sturdy one,  
Could hardly hirple a fu' ell  
Gin they were left alone!"

*Musaeus; a Tale.* By Thomas Edward Clack. (Hodder & Stoughton.) The subject of this tale has nothing to do with the author of "Hero and Leander," nor is he connected with the distinguished German author of the same name, who flourished last century. He was a mythical bard born "in bland Devon," and nursed by Nature in her wildest scenes. He had a high opinion of his own effusions, for he remarked on one occasion:—

"Though Shakespeare's wild invention now is o'er  
And Milton tunes the lay sublime no more,  
Celestial muse, that from thy secret cell  
Nightly revisit'st me where'er I dwell,  
Still on thy bard thy wonted influence pour;"

which seems a little conceited. No wonder that after a while his mind grew "worn and weary," while "his head was faint." In sleep he composed a great number of execrable verses, conscientiously recorded by Mr. Clack. We refuse to follow him later in life, when he lost his sister by death. He seems to have felt it a good deal, for according to Mr. Clack "he left the place"—

"And long it was before he could rehearse  
The tone of sadness in the following verse.

What verse? No matter!

*Interleaves.* By Percy Greg. (Trübner.) This is, we regret to say it, a spiteful little book. There are people who cannot open their lips without expressing or hinting some sordid, ignoble or ungenerous opinion. *Interleaves* is too much of the same sort. Under a pretence of speaking up for the old true-blue mottoes of English Conservatism, it contrives to sneer at everything that we are in the habit of considering liberal, intelligent, and magnanimous. These verses are too indifferent to do harm, but the reader can judge of the author's wish, as well as of his good feeling and good taste, from such a sample as this:—

"What is a Radical? One who would level  
All above him, and send all below to the devil;  
Who honours the dagger and shrinks from the sword,  
Who bullies a labourer and backbites a lord."

*Twelve National Ballads.* By Philhelot. (Tinsley.) Even in the most national ballad "Shah" should not rhyme to "Czar." The remarkable feature of this collection is, that all its impressive passages are printed in italics, and that its sentiments on all points are ultra-democratic.

*Sappho. A Tragedy in Five Acts.* By Stella, Author of "The Pearl of Poland." (Trübner.) We distinctly remember being intensely amused with the absurdities of the *Pearl of Poland*, but in some respects *Sappho* outdoes in funniness even that masterpiece. It is too serious to be really what one would at first take it to be, a burlesque, and there are no puns; yet it could hardly be made more preposterous with the best intentions. The stage is crowded with poets, who converse thus:—

"Sappho. Erinna, dearest, order wine and fruit!  
[Exit Erinna.]

A little wine will set thee up, Alcaeus!"

And thus:—

"Erinna. And how the young Anacreon?

*Sappho*. He has a wine-nose, sloven, riotous mien ;  
Anacreon should sing behind a screen.

*Anacreon* (aside). I'll owe her one, and sing before the screen."

"I'll owe her one" in a Greek tragedy! But one stage direction is too exquisite to be omitted:—

"Enter *Sappho* and *Erinna* by door, left. *Pisistratus*, *Phalaris*, *Phaon*, *Alcaeus* and other poets enter by garden, and are seen eaves-dropping among the vines, each unperceived by the other."

"Marry, if she that writ *Sappho* had played *Pyramus* and hanged herself in *Thisbe's* garter, it would have been a very fine tragedy; and so it is, truly, and very notably discharged." EDITOR.

### NOTES AND NEWS.

WE hear that Mr. Tennyson is to write some new scenes for the acting version of his *Queen Mary* at the Lyceum.

MR. F. A. PERTIUS, of Gotha, will issue in a few days a German translation of *The Desert of the Exodus*, by Professor E. H. Palmer, of Cambridge.

MR. AND MRS. ARTHUR ARNOLD have left London for a tour in Russia, Persia, and Turkey, from which they will return in the spring of next year.

THE Roman Catholic Bishop of Galway is preparing for press the manuscript of his Commentary on the Holy Gospels. It will appear in December in two royal octavo volumes, to match his previous work on the Epistles, which has now reached a third edition. Mr. Kelly, of Dublin, is the publisher.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN have in the press a new edition, entirely recast, of P. G. Hamerton's valuable work on *Etching and Etchers*, which is now out of print. The illustrations will all be new and the text re-written so as to include the latest methods and improvements in the art.

A NEW edition of Chatto and Jackson's well-known history of wood-engraving is announced by Messrs. Chatto and Windus as being in course of preparation. The first edition of this important work was published in 1839, with the title of *A Treatise on Wood Engraving, Historical and Practical*, with 300 illustrations on wood by John Jackson. In 1861 a second edition was put forth with 145 new illustrations. In this the historical portion was entirely re-written by W. Andrew Chatto, author of the *Origin and History of Playing Cards*. The book is now announced simply as Chatto's *History of Wood Engraving*, but the fine woodcuts that illustrate it, 445 in number, are still the work of the distinguished English wood-engraver, John Jackson.

THE pressure of Dr. Richard Morris's new duties as Head-master of the Royal Masonic School has obliged him to stop for a time the progress of his important Four-Text edition of the *Cursor Mundi*, for the Early English Text Society; but he has already finished for issue next January a Part III., as large as either of the two former Parts has been. The text of the poem will not be completed till Part V. is out.

It is with no common regret that we record the death, at Twickenham, last Saturday, August 21, of Mr. William Smith Williams, who was so long the working head of the publishing department of the firm of Smith, Elder & Co. It was his kind letter to Miss Brontë that first encouraged her in her work, and led to her re-cast of *Jane Eyre*. He was one of the most courteous, kind, and true gentlemen that ever lived, a worthy representative of Chaucer's Knight. In the memories of his wide circle of friends his name will live with its old fragrance of affection and esteem.

MR. CHARLES E. WILSON is engaged in translating the *Baharistan* of Jami into English from the original Persian.

M. VAN EYS is preparing a third edition of his valuable *Basque Grammar*. It will embody the philological discoveries worked out in his late *Etude sur l'origine et la formation des verbes auxiliaires Basques*, as well as others which he has made relating to the Basque pronouns.

THE second edition of Mr. Sayce's *Principles of Comparative Philology* will be out in a few weeks. The work has been thoroughly revised, and a preface added in which he explains his views as to the historical character of a Root-period and the origin of flexion, more in detail than could be done in the body of the book.

WE regret to hear that the completion of Mr. Robert Cowtan's work on *The City of Canterbury* from 1774 to 1874 is postponed for the present in consequence of the author's ill-health.

THE Third Annual Congress of the Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations begins at the Hague on September 1, under the presidency of the Hon. David Dudley Field, of New York.

A BOOK of gossip entitled *Leverana*, containing some of Charles Lever's earlier writings, and anecdotes of his friends and contemporaries, will be published by Mr. Kelly of Dublin in December next.

MISS BRADDON'S *Hostages to Fortune* will be issued in the orthodox three volumes early next week, by Messrs. John Maxwell and Co. At the same time a cheap edition of Miss Braddon's *A Strange World*, will be published by Messrs. Ward, Lock and Tyler.

THE Ballad Society has just issued to its subscribers its second book for 1874, being Part VI. of the *Roxburgh Ballads*, edited by Mr. Wm. Chappell, and completing volume II. There are several Robin Hood ballads in the Part—"The Lamentable and Tragical History of Titus Andronicus," "A Table of Good Nurture," to tell boys how to behave:—

"Thy garments unbutton'd delight not to wear,  
Lest slovenly nick-name fall unto thy share;  
Thy hose, if ungartered, deserveth like shame,  
Whereby thou wilt purchase thy tutor much blame."

"The Virgin's A B C," plenty of love ballads, "A True Relation of Susan Higges," the female highwayman who committed a murder, and then confessed it, "The Three Merry Cobblers," &c., &c.

MESSRS. CHATTO AND WINDUS will shortly publish 150 plates from Canova's works in sculpture and modelling. They will be engraved in outline by Moses, and printed on India tint paper. A memoir of the great sculptor, by Cicognara, and descriptions of the engravings, by the Countess Albrizzi, will form the literature of the volume.

THE same publishers have also in preparation the *Life and Times of Thomas Rowlandson*, with a history of his caricatures and a key to their meaning. This work will form a handsome illustrated volume, uniform with that curious and interesting book *Gillray the Caricaturist*, brought out by Messrs. Chatto and Windus some time ago. It is not stated who is to be the editor of the present volume.

THE first part of the Philological Society's *Transactions* is kept back for a few weeks to enable Mr. Alexander J. Ellis to complete his revision of Mr. F. T. Elworthy's complete list of West Somersetshire words, with their pronunciation in the Glossic Alphabet invented by Mr. Ellis. Mr. Elworthy had made such an excellent classification of the words of the dialect, and such exhaustive lists of those words, that Mr. Ellis resolved to go carefully through every word with Mr. Elworthy, and thus stereotype for ever—so far as letters can do it—this dialect in our Victorian time. Mr. Elworthy will read another paper on the dialect before the Philological

Society next session, treating certain peculiarities of it that he had not time for in his former paper. Prince Louis-Lucien Bonaparte will probably also bring before the Society the modifications of his classification of the South-Western Dialects which his further researches into them this season have induced him to make.

MESSRS. SAMPSON LOW, MARSTON & Co. will issue on September 1, the first part of a new monthly periodical, entitled *Studies from Nature*. Each number will be illustrated with four permanent photographic plates. A special feature will be the publication in this work from time to time of views of nature and life in action. Accompanying each plate will be a page of descriptive text by the editor, Mr. Stephen Thompson.

WE understand that M. Boutmy, Director of the Ecoles des Sciences Politiques of Paris, and Professor of Constitutional History therein, has lately arrived in London for the purpose of making some researches at the British Museum into the history of the English Constitution.

A VALUABLE relic of O'Connell and Catholic Emancipation is now on view at Mr. Kelly's in Dublin. It consists of a thick folio volume, containing 296 letters from various political personages, being their replies to the secretary of the committee which organised the great Protestant meeting for Catholic Emancipation, held in the Rotondo in 1829. The price asked for the volume is fifty-five pounds.

CONCERNING the transcriptions of Irish MSS., and the action taken by the Royal Irish Academy thereon, Mr. Whitley Stokes writes from Simla, under date June 14, to M. Gaidoz, editor of the *Revue Celtique*:—

"I hear that the Royal Irish Academy are going to send you a letter denying most of the statements that I have made about the mistakes in their lithographic fac-similes. . . . There are only three persons in the British Isles whose opinions on the subject would be worth anything, viz., Messrs. Hennessy, Bradshaw, Rhys. Let the Academy have photographs made of the originals of the incriminated passages and send copies to the above three experts and also to Mr. Nigra. To their judgment I would yield—but only to theirs."

THE Early English Text Society is reprinting its edition of *The Complaynt of Scotland*, by Dr. James A. H. Murray, which has run out of print. The reprint will contain a note by the Editor on the recent interpretation that has appeared in *Notes and Queries* of the celebrated *Complaynt* scene on board ship. The main features of the scene were rightly described by Mr. G. M. Hantler in the Early English Text Society's edition; but in exposing the funny mistakes of M. Jal, a French critic, who has explained the manoeuvres to his own entire satisfaction, the correspondent of *Notes and Queries* has also suggested improved versions of some of the English commentator's remarks.

THIS year's Programme of the "Realschule" of the Johanneum at Hamburg contains the first part of the *Life and Poems of William Wordsworth*, written in English by Dr. Albert Fels. The author is already known by his prize essay on the Orthography of the Pliny MSS., proposed in 1860 by the University of Göttingen. Is it not strange that the German Grammar Schools, not to speak of the Universities, should have professorships for the English language and literature, while there is none in either of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge?

WE last week called attention to some new additions to the Manuscript Department of the British Museum, illustrating such widely different subjects as Old German Plays, the Topography of Cheshire, and the History of Archery. Among other miscellaneous acquisitions by the same department we may also briefly notice—A Register of documents relating to the estates of Sir Roger, and his son Sir Peter, Manwood, of Hackington,



co. Kent, sixteenth and seventeenth century; Some Original Letters of French Princes and others, of the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; Index to the monumental inscriptions contained in Davy's Collections for Suffolk; W. Hals' *Parochial History of Cornwall*; Transcript of Thos. Tonkin's *History of Cornwall*, with additions by J. Whitaker; Letters relating to Hals' History; Letters of Thomas Moore, Sheridan, and others—account by H. Burgess of the assassination of Mr. Percival by Bellingham; Miscellaneous Papers partly relating to property at Whitehall; Translation of Vida's Hymn to God the Father, with other poems, by Dr. Morell; Weekly accounts of wages paid to the servants of Prince Rupert, etc., 1679–1682; *The Caledonian Mercury*, a printed journal, August 5 to December 30, 1745, imperfect, with MS. additions; Sermons on Early Repentance, and the Communion, early eighteenth century. Extracts from Cave's *Ecclesiastica*; *Dialogue on Religion*, written in 1618, and printed under the name of Lord Herbert of Chesham; the Eighth Book of Dr. Jackson's *Commentary on the Apostles' Creed*, 1635, copied in 1686; Rental valuations, &c., of the estates of Edward Byng in Middlesex and Essex, 1731–1738; Processus ad Coronationem Georgii II.; Roll of the Procession of Charles II. through London the day before his Coronation, April 22, 1661; Roll of the Coronation Procession of Charles II. from the Hall to the Abbey, April 23, 1661; a Collection of Foreign Autographs; Miscellaneous English Arms, for Funerals; Arms of the Sees of England, and of various families; Genealogical Notes, &c.; Notes and Extracts relating to old English and French Plays, probably by a Rev. Mr. Ashby, at the end of the eighteenth century; a Vellum Roll containing an Account of Receipts and Expenses of Bailiffs of Manors of the Archbishop of Canterbury, about the time of Edward I.; Genealogy of the Sovereigns of England to Charles II., with Arms, by Francis Reade, 1627; "The descent, pedigree and armes of the ancient famelye of A-rove or Rowe in the co. of Kent," seventeenth century; Cookery Recipes collected in Parma, 1596 (Italian); *Capitularie Consiliariae*: statutes for a Venetian councillor, given to Antonio Grimani, 1563; Entry book of cases heard by Chancellor Finch, Earl of Nottingham, 1673–1682.

THE New Shakspeare Society sent out to its members last week the Second Part of its *Transactions* for 1874, and the First Part for 1875–76, with its Committee's Report of its first year's work. The Report says, on the one hand:—

"One result of the Society's first year's work has certainly been, to bring out the value of metrical texts to an extent unexpected by Englishmen, and to render these texts henceforth an indispensable part of Shakspeare criticism here, as they have long been in Germany, though there their value in helping to distinguish spurious work from genuine had been quite overlooked;"

while on the other hand:—

"Against the unwise attempt to make these texts the sole ones of the dates of the plays, as strong protests have been uttered in the Society's rooms and publications as have been heard outside."

Prince Leopold's gift of the parallel-text quartos of *Romeo and Juliet* to every member of the Society is thus noticed:—

"The Committee desire to record their gratification that the first public act of a son of the Queen of England has been the worthy one of giving a valuable Parallel-Text of Shakspeare's first Tragedy to the Members of the New Shakspeare Society; and they wish publicly to thank Prince Leopold for his princely act."

And lastly the Committee says:—

"The results of the Society's first year's work are most encouraging. It has led the revival of interest in Shakspeare that the theatres and press bear witness to; it has enrolled nearly 450 Members; it has established Branch Societies, and helped to form many

reading parties; it has issued four Texts, besides the three presented to it; it has forced on the notice of the English public that most powerful and useful instrument in Shakspeare criticism, 'Metrical Tests'; it has made known to this generation the genuine and spurious parts of *Henry VIII.*, *The Two Noble Kinsmen*, *Pericles*, and perhaps *The Shrew* and *Timon*; it has re-opened the question of Shakspeare's Politics and the Political use of the stage in his time; it has gone far to establish the genuineness of the Porter-scene in *Macbeth*; it has published the Parallel-Texts of *Romeo and Juliet*, and the separate Quartos of 1597 and 1599, besides some very rare Allusion-books; it has procured the publication of a new and cheaper edition of the Englished *Gervinus*, and the issue of a cheap edition of Singer's *Shakspeare*, &c. Its members Mr. Halliwell and Prof. Dowden have published valuable works on Shakspeare.

"It wants but an increased list of Members, and more workers with good heads, to ensure its lasting success."

THE French Association for the Advancement of Science began its fourth meeting at Nantes on the 19th inst. The opening address was delivered by M. d'Eichthal, president.

THE literary remains of Hans Andersen, especially his large collection of letters—his own and those addressed to him—will, according to a correspondent of the *Danmervirke*, be, in conformity with the last will of the deceased, given up to Director C. St. A. Bille, formerly editor of the *Dagblad*, and to Candidate Nik. Bögh, for arrangement and eventual use.

WE had only time last week to announce the death of a man too remarkable to pass away without further notice. The Rev. Robert Stephen Hawker was born at Plymouth in 1805, graduated at Oxford, and in 1827 gained the Newdigate prize for a poem on Pompeii. In 1834 he was appointed Vicar of Morwenstow, the most northerly parish in Cornwall, a wild district exposed to the whole force of the Atlantic Ocean. In this retirement he devoted himself to archaeology and poetry. In 1840 he published *Ecclesia*, in 1846 *Echoes from Old Cornwall*, in 1864 *The Quest of the Sangreal*, and in 1869 he collected his spirited and popular *Cornish Ballads*. He was a person of great eccentricity and individuality of manner. Every day he might be seen driving his cows down the cliffs of Morwenstow, or S. Morwenna, as he chose to call it, and reascending in their rear, helping himself up the steep ascent by holding on to the tail of the hindmost, his tall spare figure arrayed, as always, in cassock and college cap. It is understood that Mr. Hawker first introduced to the attention of Mr. Tennyson the Arthurian legends of the Cornish coast, and his own poems of this class are as independent of the Laureate's influence as Mr. Morris's are. But it is by his vigorous and beautiful ballads that he will be remembered in literature.

THE German papers announce the death, on August 16, of the well-known German journalist Karl Theodor Andree, who was born in 1808 at Brunswick, where he established himself as a *littérateur* after he had completed his academic studies at Jena, Berlin, and Göttingen. Andree deserves most commendation as a successful cultivator of the study of geography, meteorology, and kindred studies, and his annotated translations of Malte Brun, Chodzko, Achille Murat, and Balbi testify to his industry, learning, and sound judgment. In 1838 began his connexion with the press by his assumption of the editorship of the *Mainzer Zeitung*. Beside numerous translations from different languages, Andree has contributed towards the diffusion of geographical knowledge in Germany by several original works of great merit, and by founding the *Globus*, 1861–1867, a periodical whose pages were especially devoted to the discussion of questions of ethnological, geographical, and topographical interest; he has done good service to the sciences which he had made the special subjects of his own studies. His *Geography of the Commerce of the World*

(Stuttgart, 1863–1873), which supplied a want that had long been felt in German literature, associates with his own the name of his son, Richard Andree, who has earned for himself the title of a sound geographer and an original thinker by his articles on the "Czechs and Wends," on "the Gaels of Scotland," and by other treatises on ethnology and sociology.

#### A VISIT TO BRISTOL AND BATH A CENTURY AGO.

An Irish clergyman, some leaves from whose manuscript diary in London a century ago we have already printed (*See ACADEMY*, October 17, 1874), has also left behind him a humorous account of his voyage across the Channel, and of his visits to Bristol and Bath, which will perhaps be read with additional interest just now when the British Association is attracting so many strangers towards the same neighbourhood. On Monday, August 3, 1772, he set sail from Dublin on board the "*Prince*, William White, Commander," and after the captain and company had toasted to each other a very good voyage in "humble grog," the narrator tumbled into his hammock, from whence he was rudely stirred by the captain lifting up one of his legs to get at some Jamaica rum which lay in his sea-chest below. On the succeeding night (to continue the story in the divine's own words):—

"We, the respectable sojourners of the state cabin, were all alarmed with an uncommon noise aloft about the companion, occasioned by some pilfering pirates who came on board in the dead of night, under pretence of piloting us into Bristol, but with a real keen appetite to devour the relics of our sea-store, thinking no doubt we had no further occasion for it as we were so near the end of our voyage. However, for fear a new gale might spring up, which haply should drive us back again to sea, the captain shook himself and went aloft, and with his gang armed with handspikes soon cleared the deck, sweeping those vagrants into their own boat again, and sent them off to High Homes light-house, with sore bones and empty stomachs, and like true chameleons, to feed upon a fine and thin air or water gruel, both indeed equally easy of digestion, much more easy than to hang dangling from the yard-arms of that ship, which their villainous neglect had exposed to so eminent danger."

"Thursday, August 6. The deep and tremendous harbour of the very ancient famous city of Bristol more nearly opens to our view (on a very lovely morning) just as the sun emerged from the sea to new-gild every object, rejoicing as a giant to run his course, most freely permitting us at the same time to run ours and enter the muddy river Avon, whose channel contains not so much gold as yellow clay, and whose banks surmount the topmost pennants of a first-rate man-of-war. . . . The most elegant of the English chateaux we this day saluted were Sir Edward Southwell's and Mr. Cook's Folly, whose enchanting woods, extensive lawns and hanging gardens drank plentifully of the streams of Avon, as appeared from the blooming verdure of their groves and lively hue of the herbage and plantations adjoining the river. And, since 'tis generally allowed that travellers as well as poets have either granted or taken extraordinary liberties, give me leave to introduce the sequel of Mr. Cook's Folly by way of episode to this nearly finished voyage. This gentleman, they tell you, was a citizen of Bristol, who, by his extensive knowledge and industry in trade, had acquired a very large fortune. But how to dispose or secure it gave him the greatest anxiety and uneasiness imaginable. To put to sea again would he thought be running the like risks he had so often escaped, and to build his happiness on a very sandy and precarious foundation of the winds and waves. To lodge his capital in the funds would produce only a very inconsiderable interest of four per cent.; if the Treasury stopped payment, as formerly in Charles 2nd's days, he might be reduced to starve in the midst of plenty. He was resolved therefore what to do; and in consequence purchased this farm, pulled down the old barns and built greater, wherein he fancied he might bestow the whole fruits and goods of his time and labour. He was determined, let the worst happen that could, to prepare at least an inn to bait at by erecting a famous monument for himself and a tower as high as that of Babel, consisting of many winding stories in the inside but

quite perpendicular and smooth without. This very whimsical structure, we are informed, owed its rise to the vision of a spectre he saw (or strongly fancied he saw), which told him that notwithstanding his great fortune and accumulated wealth, he should at length most certainly be devoured by a snake. Self-preservation therefore prompting him to live here as long as he could, he raised this Folly, over which he thought those dangerous reptiles could not have the least influence or domination, which was to him a kind of heaven.

"We all went ashore about ten, and were obliged to leave our luggage aboard till brought by the proper officers to be examined by those hungry and nimble-handed harpies at the Custom House. But after all their rummaging they seized nothing but the relics of our provisions, which they fell upon without mercy and made them pay double duty, devouring them even before we quitted the ship, and swallowing them down in the twinkling of a bed staff, marrow bones and all. However since our trunks and portmanteaus were condemned to remain in the cabin one night longer, we loaded our pockets with such things as were necessary only, and then marched rank and file over the first bridge we met with, to Mr. Bouchier's at the White Hart, the best inn and tavern in Bristol, where we bespoke dinner, for which they made a very reasonable charge not taking it upon their conscience to put down in the cross bill they filed against us on the occasion more than four shillings for two poached chickens, and every other article in proportion. The whiling time before dinner was employed in visiting their Exchange, a very superb building not much inferior to that of Cornhill, and the entrance beautified and adorned with a long range of brazen pillars presented to the Corporation of Bristol by one Peter Elliot, a quondam right worshipful mayor of the city. Their Townhall also is very magnificent and grand.

Leaving Bristol that evening,

"We set out for Bath, where we arrived about eight o'clock in the evening at the St. Christopher, one of the best inns in the city, directly opposite the Town Hall whereon appear, fronting Belvedere Buildings, two elegant little figures peeping out of their niches on the fishmongers' stalls. Ordering supper about ten we strolled about the city till then, &c.

"Friday, August 7. Rising at six I sallied out to view the curiosities of the ancient and celebrated city of Bath. The morning was extremely fine and doubly gilt every object exhibited to the view. And even the Crescent, which has not yet filled the extremity of its globe with light, seemed to shine with greater brilliancy from those superfluous rays that were borrowed and otherwise must have been absorbed and sunk in the circus. The inhabitants of this part of the moon seem to have as elegant taste for architecture as if they had been the earthly disciples of Palladio or Vitruvius. Their buildings are all regularly uniform and of equal height, highly decorated with balustrades above, the entablature of which are supported with noble Corinthian pillars encompassed with iron palisades below. The lunar mountains with which this city is surrounded amply supply the materials for the work which has raised a princely fortune for the present man of the moon, one Mr. Allen, though his step brother above was remarkable only for his thorn bush and never had, and never can have to his dying day, a single golden shiner without borrowing from his neighbours, so that at last he must become a bankrupt. But to descend a little from those lofty metaphors, I stepped down from this Turkish crescent and reviewed the Circus, where some masons were employed in laying a platform and a pedestal whereon to erect a statue to the memory of the late Duke of Cumberland. Not far from hence I surveyed the new rooms, built at the expense of seventy gentlemen who subscribed 300*l.* a piece, over which Mr. Wade presides as gentleman usher of the public diversions. The apartments are extremely elegant and grand, &c. . . . When I came into the Pump Rooms I beheld in a niche the statue of the late Mr. Nash in full length with a label in his right hand inscribed with a scheme for a general hospital—his breast all open, and but three buttons closed in his waistcoat. On one side of this niche there stands a clock presented by Tompion, who is the common regulator of the whole town, and on the other a sundial made by the same ingenious artist. The names of all the chairmen with the number and places of abode are here hanging up, that if any of them trans-

gress it may be known where to find them. Such a regulation would be of great utility in Dublin and every other great city. The gentleman here in waiting told me he pays a smart rent for this room, viz., 500*l.* per annum, which no doubt must be worth his while, as there is scarcely a family in the three kingdoms that does not some time or other, if they be persons of any distinction or fortune, reside several months at Bath."

#### HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE SOUTHERN STATES OF AMERICA.

We have received the following communication respecting the present condition of the university of that State from a correspondent in Virginia:—

"Among the cheering signs of the gradual recovery of the South, there is none more encouraging than the revival of literary activity. It proves that both the writers and the readers of books have once more leisure at their command, and interest in science and literature, after a melancholy period of nearly twenty years, during which the horrors of war and the cares of existence alone filled the mind of the people. The process of establishing a system of public instruction in the Southern States is going on with satisfactory steadiness and encouraging success. Old institutions of learning are revived, and new ones are established; the latter mainly by the different religious sects which begin to strive energetically for supremacy in educating their ministers and obtaining control over the minds of the young. It is true that thus the great evil of an utterly disproportionate number of colleges and so-called universities is daily increasing, and the standard of instruction must necessarily remain very low. But fortunately, at the same time, an effort is about to be made to establish a genuine university on a broad and safe basis in Baltimore, a wealthy friend, Mr. John Hopkins, having left the munificent sum of 3,000,000 dollars for the purpose. The board of trustees, besides having this handsome annual revenue of 40,000*l.* at their disposal, find themselves, moreover, untrammelled by any conditions in their expenditure, neither political nor sectarian influences being connected with the proposed institution. They have so far acted very cautiously, determining to provide instruction only of the highest character, and choosing a president in the person of Mr. C. D. Gilman, late president of the University of California.

"Until this great institution goes into operation, the University of Virginia, founded by Mr. Jefferson, and supported by his native State, is, as far as it goes, the only true university in the land. It was modelled by the great statesman after the universities of Germany, giving to the students perfect liberty in selecting the studies they proposed to pursue, and making the income of the professors, beyond a very modest salary, altogether dependent on the fees paid by their hearers. The principle has worked admirably; the professors labour faithfully and zealously, since their daily bread as well as their reputation depends upon their efforts; and the students work equally hard on their part, since, in the absence of a curriculum, their success in the shape of a much-desired diploma depends entirely upon the issue of strict annual examinations. The first professors had to be summoned from abroad—now fifty years ago—as the country at that time did not seem to Mr. Jefferson to furnish men of sufficient erudition and renown to attract scholars to a genuine university. Of the first faculty three members still survive, worthy witnesses of the sagacity of the great founder. They are Messrs. Key, Long, and Sylvester, long and meritoriously connected with the literature and the science of England. But there are still several foreigners connected with the institution; among them Professor John W. Mallet, whose name was recently presented by Mr. Huxley himself for fellowship in the Royal Society, an honour well earned by his many valuable contributions to the science of chemistry, which have for many years appeared in the *Proceedings of the Royal Society*. Others have studied abroad, and now emulate the thoroughness and accuracy of German scholars in their publications. Thus the new edition of Persius the latest work of Professor B. L. Gildersleeve, and published by Messrs. Harper and Brothers, in New York, promises to be the best edition of that comparatively little known author. Several other pro-

fessors have united in bringing out a series of textbooks, under the name of the 'University Series,' which has also been published in New York, by a stock company formed for the purpose, but is almost exclusively used in Southern schools and colleges. The mathematical series, rising from a primer on arithmetic to a volume on the philosophy of mathematics, is prepared by Professor C. S. Venables, whose long experience as a teacher is by no means rendered less valuable by the fact that he received his early training as a scholar in German universities, and his later schooling as a man in the military family of General Lee, on whose staff he held a prominent position during the late war. Professor W. J. Peters, in like manner a pupil of the great Boeckh in Berlin, and a fighting colonel in the war, has just published an abstract of his lectures on Latin syntax, a work of great merit and eminent practical usefulness. Nor are the members of the two faculties of law and of medicine—a theological faculty was purposely omitted by Mr. Jefferson—behindhand in their literary activity, but their publications, strictly professional, are necessarily of less interest to the public at large. There is reason to hope, from these signs of returning literary activity in the leading institutions of the South, that peace has truly returned to this large and important part of the Union, and that among other blessings it will bring a renewed love of learning and a sound general education to its much-suffering people."

#### GERMAN LETTER.

(I. Art, Philology, &c.)

Gotha: August 13, 1875.

There is at the present moment the liveliest activity in the domain of art history; efforts are made on all sides to collect and to sift materials in monographs, and at the same time to make the results of research accessible in a generally intelligible form to a larger circle. An undertaking is dedicated to the first object, in which, above all, greater regard is paid to the personality of artists than has lately been the case. A number of learned men, among whom I will only mention Dobbert, Falke, Jordan, Springer, have united to produce the work *Art and the Artists of the Middle Ages and of Modern Times, Biographies and Characteristics*, published by R. Dohme, Imperial Court Librarian (Leipzig: Seemann). The number before me contains *The Brothers Van Eyck*, by O. Eisenmann, and *Martin Schongauer*, by W. Schmidt. The latter has undertaken to give in brief touches an altogether clear and interesting picture of the Upper German master, who, as a pupil of Rogier van der Weyden, has done no little to introduce the artistic method of the Netherlands into Germany, and is, on the other hand, connected by means of his engravings with Perugino and even with Michel Angelo. The woodcuts also given are not of equal value, but may afford a view of the artist's character. In the same publication appeared, also illustrated by numerous woodcuts, *Sebald and Barthel Beham*, two painters of the German Renaissance, by A. Rosenberg. The two artists, one of whom was born in the year 1500, the other two years later, are true children of this period of wild fermentation. The first certain document which gives information regarding their lives, is the protocol of a court of justice at Nuremberg of the year 1524, according to which they with the painter Georg Pencz are accused as adherents of Karlstadt and Münzer. In this they are styled "prächtigt, trotzig, und von sich hochhaltend;" they are charged with despising all religion and authority, and their answers show a state of mind which we, in the present day, should look for only in the Parisian Commune. Barthel Beham said, it appears, that he knew of no Christ, that he felt as though he heard men speak of Duke Ernest who had gone into the mountain, and Sebald, as also Pencz, declared that they knew of no authority but God. It is easy to understand that such men should, above all, turn to the rich sensuousness of the Renaissance; hence we are delighted, especially in their woodcuts, by a wanton and uncontrolled enjoyment of life. They are un-



questionably akin to the Italians of the period, and, in fact, the works of the younger brother have been compared with those of Marcantonio. Herr Rosenberg endeavours, with little success, to obliterate the most prominent features of these characters, and to represent them, especially Seibald, who kept a tavern at Frankfurt on the Main, and was, according to tradition, drowned on account of coarse immorality, as respectable men, although the portrait of the master, painted by himself, might suffice to stultify such an undertaking. The fourth number of the *History of Modern German Art*, by F. Reber, Professor of Art History at the Polytechnic at Munich (Stuttgart: Mayer & Zeller), has appeared. One cannot, indeed, say that this work corresponds to the former labours of the excellent *avant*. Even in the first number the style and arrangement were neither tasteful nor skilful, though the general statements, especially those of the characteristics of Raphael Mengs, Schadow, Carstens, Thorwaldsen, were clear and intelligible; but the weak points of the work become more and more evident in the continuation. The most successful, in spite of great shortcomings in style, is the description of the German colony at Rome under Overbeck and Cornelius, of whom the frescoes of the Casa Bartholdy are a lasting memorial; on the other hand, the exposition of modern art at Düsseldorf, Munich, and Berlin is as much wanting in clear division of the whole subject as in keen judgment on special points. The sections: Enamel, Glass-painting, Mosaic, Lacquering, Miniature, illustrated by many very good wood-cuts, are all finished by the editor in the *History of the Technical Arts*, edited, in conjunction with other learned men, by B. Bucher (Stuttgart: Spemann). The reproduction in chromo-lithography (Munich and Berlin: Bruckmann) of *Carl Rottmann's Italian and Greek Landscapes* does one's heart good. We Northerners all work together to a certain extent towards an artistic comprehension of Southern landscape: when we, gazing on our formless and colourless home-scenes, think of that which we have seen beyond the Alps, pictures with broad and pleasing outlines, with warm and vaporous colours, with full golden light, take such shapes in our memory as we may perhaps never find again. In Rottmann's frescoes, however, we see the ideal of our fancy realised by a masterly hand. The technical execution is entrusted to Herr R. Steinbock's establishment at Berlin, the same from which the excellent copies of Hildebrandt's water-colours were issued. Three numbers have appeared up to the present time, the last of which contains, beside the frowning rocks forming the gate of the Veronese mountain pass, a splendid view of Palermo, or, to speak more correctly, of Monte Pellegrino, and a pleasant sea-piece of the Gulf of Baia. The illustrations of German poets will receive a very noteworthy contribution in Th. Storm's *Housebook from German Poets*, a splendid edition, with illustrations on wood by Hans Speckter (Leipzig: Mauke). These add a new charm to a collection already very favourably distinguished from the books of this sort now extant. For while it was formerly the endeavour of such anthologies to satisfy the claims of many by giving as many points of view as possible, Storm's *Housebook* is put together in accordance with an entirely individual but artistically cultivated taste. One cannot obtain a very complete view of our lyrical poetry from the whole work, but one can scarcely find a poem in it which has not an artistic interest of some kind. Copies in chromo-lithography of the large *Landscapes of the Odyssey*, which were discovered in the year 1848 on the Esquiline, and were preserved in the Vatican in the same room as the *Aldobrandini Nuptials*, will appear at Ackermann's at Munich. The editor is Herr K. Woermann, Professor of the Academy of Art at Düsseldorf, whom we have to thank for a very pretty essay on the feeling of the Greeks and Romans for rural nature.

While I was able in my former letter to announce that the Archaeological Institute was engaged upon a catalogue of Roman antiquities, I can now inform you of a finished work of the same character. Herr H. Dütschke has by commission from, and with the support of, the Institute, supplemented his *Ancient Statuary of Upper Italy*, which treats of the Campo Santo at Pisa, by a second part, *Scattered Ancient Statuary at Florence* (Leipzig: Engelmann). A specification of the marble statues collected in the Uffizi is to follow in a short time, and a catalogue of the museum at Mantua will appear later. Thus a foundation is afforded for archaeological research by the certain registration of the materials extant, the want of which has hitherto been painfully felt. Meantime, the work, preparatory to a great undertaking by the Institute, is making delightful progress. Professor Kekulé, of Bonn, will go to Greece in the autumn, in order to prosecute his labours towards a *Corpus* of ancient terra-cottas which he had in former years begun in Italy with the greatest success. The excavations in the Altis of Olympia, which the German Government intends to undertake, will now at last be begun; and while we may, in October, expect the report of the Austrian expedition of 1873, Professor Conze will, in August of this year, accompanied by Professor Benndorf, Hauser, the architect, Löher, the sculptor, and others, visit Samothrace for the second time, commissioned by the Government of Vienna, to carry on the excavations begun there two years ago. For the *Corpus Inscriptionum* of the Berlin Academy, Professor Otto Hirschfeld of Prague will travel this winter in the south of France, in order to finish the preparatory work for Gallia and Germania. The unexpected death of Corssen imposes a temporary silence on the opposition called forth by his work on the Etruscan language, which has also found expression in this journal. The second volume, which is to give the foundation for his views, will appear in the autumn, at the same time as *Etruscan Researches*, by Corssen's most decided critic, Herr Deecke, of Strassburg. Herr Deecke, who has become known as a linguist through a work on Cyprian Inscriptions, will immediately travel to Italy, with a view to preparing a new edition of O. Müller's *Etruscans*.

The first book of *Eusebi Chronicorum libri duo*, ed. A. Schöne, vol. i., is going through the press, while the second volume, the chronological canons in the Latin edition of Jerome, and a Latin translation of the Armenian version of Eusebius, thoroughly revised by Professor Petermann, of Berlin, had already appeared in 1866; the first volume is now almost finished. It includes the first systematic book of Eusebius in the Latin translation of the Armenian version, also revised by Petermann, certainly the best judge of Armenian, and the Greek fragments contained in Syncellus, &c., among which the Parisian index to the *Olympionika*, compiled according to a new revision undertaken by Professor de Lagarde, is especially worthy of notice. The second half of the volume consists of a series of appendices. The Armenian and Latin *Series Regum* come first, then follows a Syriac epitome, taken from a manuscript in the British Museum, in publishing which Professor E. Rödiger, now, alas! no more, enjoyed the kind support of Professor William Wright. Next on the list is a Greek chronography, originally edited in a very cursory manner by Mai, in the arrangement of which Professor von Gutschmid, of Königsberg, took an important part, a substantial furtherance of the work being indeed generally attributable to the eminent erudition and critical acumen of this scholar. In the fifth place, as a supplement to the second volume already finished, follows the complete collation of two MSS. of the Canons of Jerome, one from the Vatican, distinguished by interesting additamenta and compared anew by Richard Schöne, brother of the editor, and a manuscript which, being previously in the pos-

session of Sir Thomas Philipps, Bart., of Middlehill, was on payment of a fee of 2*l.*, given over by its present proprietor, Mr. Fenwick of Cheltenham, to Professor Rühl for comparison. The volume closes with the *Excerptor latinus barbarus*, so called by Scaliger, which has not been re-edited since the *Thesaurus temporum* of the great scholar. The high value of this fragment in regard to ancient history and chronology is well known. The editor, therefore, after a renewed comparison of the unique Parisian Codex, gives a verbally exact reprint of it in which the outward arrangement of the manuscript is also accurately copied.

One domain of philological study, which may always reckon upon more general interest, is mythology. Even long before the conflict between the Prussian State and the Romish hierarchy had brought ecclesiastical dogmas and institutions into the strife of political parties, an attentive observer could remark that the religious question most deeply agitates the present generation. The complaining assertion one is accustomed to hear from the representatives of ecclesiastical systems, that indifference is the fundamental evil of our time, rests on a misapprehension easily explained in the case of this party. At the point of religious development at which most educated men (I do not say women) now stand, a convenient indifference is precisely the ruling motive which still keeps the majority within the Church, while truly religious souls feel themselves more and more drawn into opposition to the dogmas, and to the cultus built thereon. The general interest in religious questions has just now been shown in the excitement produced in all circles by the last works of D. F. Strauss. The mental haze in which the mass of educated people exist was clearly manifested in the inharmonious din of opposition from all parties. Under such circumstances, an unbiased view of the nature of religion, such as we obtain from the historical contemplation of different religions, may have the most beneficial effect. The reception with which Max Müller's Essays have met in Germany also demonstrates a great inclination to admit teaching from this side. Hence, some notice may be claimed by a book which appears under the title, *The Indo-Germanic Religion in the Leading Points of its Development, a Contribution to the Philosophy of Religion*, by P. Assmus, Privatdozent of Philosophy at the Halle University (Halle: Pfeffer). I must, unfortunately, add that this work has the special merit of showing how such an undertaking should not be conducted. It is dedicated to Professor Dörner of Berlin, and according to the detailed statements it contains of the idea of God, and of the essence of religion, we must refer the author to that theological school which, with great acuteness, contrives to cover up the logical weaknesses of ecclesiastical dogma, and to shroud them again in still greater. Far from being unfavourably prepossessed against the book in consequence, I rather believe that this theological starting-point perhaps furnishes the best foundation for an impartial and sympathetic apprehension of bygone religious ideas. The philological treatment of mythical imagery has too long left their religious import out of account, and we shall doubtless never come to a fundamental understanding of the beliefs of the Indo-Germanic nations, without establishing their general religious conceptions; but it is equally certain that the groundwork of all these enquiries can only be obtained by thorough historical research, that the religions of antiquity can only be really known by a sharp severance of their different phases, and that, in spite of its promising title, is not to be seen in this book. After the author has, in a few superficial words, passed over the first stages, the origin of religious intuitions, he gives a characterisation of the Indian, Persian, Hellenic, and Germanic religions, from which I will only quote an expression as inaccurate as it is trite, in which he describes that of the Hellenes as the "religion of beauty." He then tries to define the conception

of natural religion as opposed to spiritual religion, a distinction to which we can all the less assent, because we nowhere learn what period, for instance, of the existence of the Hellenic nations, the author had in view when he constructs a national faith out of their primitive myths. With such an author we fall into a new extreme, in that we exchange mythology for religion, and draw out a sort of dogma from the poetically formulated myths, which least suits the Hellenes. We must, in general, lay it down distinctly that in spite of all books upon mythology, we knew but little till now of the origin and development of the popular belief of the Hellenes. On the one hand we can establish the general features of a primitive "Indo-Germanic" religion from the agreement of Hellenic, Indian, and Germanic conceptions; on the other hand, a tolerably clear picture of the great currents of the fifth century can be sketched out. But the time in which an originally Hellenic and really living religion existed, lies no doubt between these two points. In order to know what the single Hellenic stock believed of its gods, and how it worshipped them, we must unravel the whole beautiful web of the Hellenic myths, and investigate the devotions to Zeus, to Demeter, to Dionysos, and Apollo, with a view to their special significance in relation to each other. These investigations can, of course, only be made on historical, not on philosophical lines, and hence even so interesting and sagacious a book as that now before us is almost practically useless.

CARL ALDENHOVEN.

#### SELECTED BOOKS.

##### General Literature and Art.

- BAKER, W. S. William Sharp, Engraver. Pickering. 6s.  
 CERQUAND, M. Légendes et récits populaires du pays basque. Pau: Ribaut.  
 HENNESSY, W. M., and D. H. KELLY. The Book of Fenagh in Irish and English. Dublin: Hodges, Foster & Co. 42s.  
 REINHARDSTOETNER, C. von. Os Lusitanae de Luiz de Camões. 2. Lfg. Tübingen.  
 RUELEK, C. E. Etudes sur l'ancienne musique grecque. Paris: Durand. 5fr.  
 SALLÉ, A. v. Die Medaillen Albrecht Dürers. Berlin: Weidmann. 1 M. 20 Pf.

##### History.

- BRISAUD, D. Les Anglais en Guyenne. Paris: Dumoulin.  
 CARUTTI, D. Storia della diplomazia della corte di Savoia. Torino: Bocca. L. 8.  
 HEINSCHE, J. Die Reiche der Angelsachsen zur Zeit Karls d. Grossen. Breslau: Aderholz. 1 M. 50 Pf.  
 LANGHANS, V. Die Fabel v. der Einsetzung d. Kurfürstencollegiums durch Gregor V. u. Otto III. Berlin: Weidmann. 1 M. 60 Pf.  
 VIDÉK, L. Abbé. Hincmar de Reims. Paris: Larose. 6 fr.  
 WORTSMAN, L. Die Wahl Karls IV. zum römischen Könige. Breslau: Treutend & Granier. 1 M. 20 Pf.

##### Physical Science.

- DAMON, R. Geology of Weymouth and Portland. Weymouth. 3s. 6d.  
 MICHELIS, F. Die Haeckelogenie. Ein akadem. Protest gegen Haeckels "Anthropogenie." Bonn: Neusser. 2 M.  
 SCHOENFELD, E. Astronomische Beobachtungen auf der grossherzogl. Sternwarte zu Mannheim. 2. Abth. Karlsruhe: Braun. 6 M.

##### Philology.

- KESSLER, K. De formatione quorundam nominum Syriacorum. Leipzig: Lorentz. 1 M. 50 Pf.  
 SCHMIDT, J. Zur Geschichte d. indogermanischen Vocalemus. 2. Abth. Weimar: Böhlau. 13 M.  
 VAN EYS, W. J. Etude sur l'origine et la formation des verbes auxiliaires basques. Paris: Maisonneuve. 5 fr.

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

##### "LISSOM."

Cambridge: August 23, 1875.

At p. 192 of the ACADEMY, August 21, 1875, I read—"We are justified in doubting whether *lissom* is really *lightsome*." Surely it is well ascertained that *lissom* is really *lithe-some*; see Halliwell, Wedgwood, and Richardson.

The reason why the English Dialect Society discourages etymology, as a rule, is simply this. The etymology of an English word is either *known*, or *unknown*. Supposing it *known*, there is little sense in telling us what we can find in books already, especially when, as is generally the case, the person who volunteers the information

generally succeeds in setting wrong what has already been set right. If the etymology be *unknown*, it is not very likely to be rightly discovered, for the first time, by amateurs who (probably) cannot explain fifty consecutive lines of Chaucer, and may never have heard of Caedmon.

WALTER W. SKEAT.

##### "HÔMÂST."

London: August 18, 1875.

While compiling the Glossary of the Book of Arda Viraf and other Pahlavi texts, which was published last year by order of the Government of Bombay, I found considerable difficulty in ascertaining the exact meaning of the word *hômâst*, which appeared to be the Pahlavi name of some portion of a religious ritual, but the allusions made to it in Pahlavi writings were insufficient to fix its meaning, and no European seemed to have obtained any information on the subject. I have since been favoured with the following explanation of the term (according to the views of the present Parsi priesthood) by Dastur Jamaspji Minocherji Jamaspasana; which explanation may be useful to the few persons who take an interest in Pahlavi literature and Parsi religious ceremonies.

1. *Hômâst* is the recital of one Yasna daily for 144 days in honour of the following twelve angels, viz., Hormazd, Tishtar, Khurshed, Mâh, Abân, Adar, Khurdâd, Amerdâd, Spendârmad, Vâd, Srôsh, and Ardâfravash; each angel being adored for twelve successive days.

2. *Khadûk hômâst*, or *yak hômâst*, (one *hômâst*) is the same as *hômâst*, except that during the Ushahin Gâh of each twelfth day a Vendidad is recited instead of the Yasna only.

3. *Dvâzdah hômâst* (twelve *hômâsts*) is the recital of a Yasna and a Vendidad daily for 144 days in honour of the same twelve angels, each angel being thus adored for twelve successive days.

4. *Dvâzdah dah hômâst* (twenty-two *hômâsts*) is a similar recital to the last, but for 264 days, each successive period of twelve days being devoted to the honour of one of the twenty-two angels comprising the twelve above-mentioned and the following ten, viz., Bahman, Ardabahisht, Shaharivar, Mihir, Behrâm, Daham, Din, Rashnû, Gôsh, and Ashtâd.

These prayers are to be recited by priests for a woman after her purification, in order to atone for any sin committed by her during her menstruation. An expenditure of 350 rupees is requisite for the celebration of a *hômâst*, 422 rupees for the *khadûk hômâst*, 1,000 rupees for the *dvâzdah hômâst*, and 2,000 rupees for the *dvâzdah dah hômâst*; and the righteousness obtained amounts to 1,000 *tanâfûrs* for each Yasna, 10,000 for each Visparad, and 70,000 for each Vendidad recited; a *tanâfûr* being equivalent to the weight of about 1,200 rupees. Of these four forms of prayer the *hômâst* and *dvâzdah dah hômâst* are no longer used, the latter being altogether forgotten.

If this explanation may be taken as a specimen of the information regarding technical terms which Dastur Jamaspji intends to furnish in the Pahlavi Dictionary which he has prepared for publication, it is evident that that work will be of considerable value to European scholars, as well as to his own countrymen.

With regard to the recital of Parsi prayers it may not be unnecessary to notice that the recital of the Yasna is confined to the Yasna alone, but the recital of the Visparad includes that of the Yasna, and the recital of the Vendidad includes that of both Visparad and Yasna. The recital of the Vendidad must be commenced shortly after midnight, and lasts usually from 1 A.M. to 7 A.M.; but the Yasna alone should be recited in the morning.

E. W. WEST.

#### THE COPENHAGEN MUSEUM OF PREHISTORIC ANTIQUITIES.

Copenhagen: August 11, 1875.

I have just examined with much attention the Copenhagen Museum of prehistoric antiquities (Nordiske Oldsager), in which, as elsewhere, the stone period is divided into three distinct stadia. In the first stadium are here exclusively classed the findings in the "Kjökkenmøddinge": very rudely-made hammers, axes, knives, arrows, and lances of silex, intermixed with a few well-polished specimens; some rough combs of bone evidently cut out with flint knives; rough bone needles, &c. These weapons and implements are justly considered to be derived from the first inhabitants of Denmark, who, it is thought, were unacquainted with the use of bronze. But this latter supposition is contradicted by the findings in the "Kjökkenmødding" of Samsingerbanken, because a large bronze ring and a bronze ornament have been found there. If, as the Danish scholars pretend, this "Kjökkenmødding" were a sort of transition from the stone age to the bronze age, then there ought to be found here only polished stone weapons and implements; but such is not the case; on the contrary, in no other "Kjökkenmødding" are the stone weapons and implements so rudely made as in this. Bronze has not been found in all the "Kjökkenmøddinge;" but this is quite natural, because these mountains of prehistoric household remains are invariably on the very sea shore, and consist of sea-cockles, snails, oyster shells, &c., and what little metal may have been thrown away by the first inhabitants must have been eaten by the rust and must have disappeared in the damp sealt. We have further to consider that Denmark's cold climate is totally unfit for *air-oxides*, and unless we suppose that the first inhabitants were created in woollen clothes, they must necessarily have come from a hot country, whence they brought with them bronze weapons and implements. Their stock of them has no doubt been but scanty, and, as they had to adapt their mode of life to the condition of the country, it may have taken them a long time ere they could extract copper here and procure tin to make bronze. But that those immigrants who had known the use of metal in their own country, and had brought with them a certain degree of civilisation, should on their arrival here have relapsed into complete savagery, should have completely forgotten the use of metal, and should have used the very rudest kind of stone weapons and implements—that is altogether impossible. There are, as I said, in each "Kjökkenmødding" a few polished weapons and instruments, and if there are fifty times more rudely-made than there are polished ones, it is quite natural; for the latter had cost a great deal of labour, and they were consequently not thrown away like the rough ones, which can be made in almost no time. It is quite certain that when the condition of the first inhabitants improved and they got a little more civilised, they only used polished weapons and implements of stone and gradually increased their productions of bronze; but there never existed a time in which they were totally unacquainted with bronze, or used only unpolished, rude stone weapons and implements. Polished stone weapons and implements we find even with the wild men in Africa and on the islands of Asia.

To the second stadium of the stone age are attributed here the findings in the Dolmens, which contain only polished weapons and implements and very frequently some objects of bronze. To the third stadium of the stone age are attributed here the more perfect polished stone arms and implements, which are found all over the country.

The first inhabitants used pottery, for in all "Kjökkenmøddinge" are found fragments of hand-made vases, some of which are of the very rudest workmanship, while others are better made and have incised ornaments. Still better vases, and many of them entire, are found in the Dolmens; most of them have incised or-



naments, among which the imitation of the fish-spine is conspicuous. Among the vases attributed here to the third stone period, two deserve particular attention, bearing incised ornaments, which, instead of the tubular loop-holes of the Trojan vases, have on each side two perforations, and in the same direction two vertical loop-holes in the covers for suspension with a string. There are in all sixteen covers of the very same type, from which I conclude that this sort of vases has been in general use. The covers have a striking resemblance to those of the vases of the first prehistoric city on the virgin soil at Hissarlik. Not only all the vases of the "Kjökkenmöddinge" and the Dolmens, but also those of the third stone age and of the bronze period are hand-made; even among those of the iron age I see a great many hand-made. There are perhaps in all here about fifty whorls, but they belong to the bronze and iron age; they are of amber or terra-cotta, and none of them has incised ornaments.

It appears that in all antiquity large quantities of gold and silver have been sent here in exchange for amber, for the Copenhagen Museum has the largest collection in the world of objects of these metals; and in the last few years alone twenty-six vases of pure gold were found, which are attributed here to the bronze period. It appears, however, that, except a certain number of objects which evidently come from Arabia, all the vases and ornaments of gold and silver contained in this museum have been made in Denmark itself. All my endeavours have failed to discover in this vast collection an object, however small, which resembles anything in the Trojan treasure. The  $\perp$ , which is so common in Troy, never occurs, either in the museum of Leyden or in that of Copenhagen, on the prehistoric pottery. But I found it here on an ornament of gold attributed to the bronze age. However, on a vase found in a Dolmen is engraved the monogram of a man, much like the figure, Table XXX. No. 383, of my work, *Troy and its Remains* (London: John Murray). This figure reminded me of Professor Max Müller's suggestion that the  $\perp$  represents the monogram of a man.

As highly interesting in this most important prehistoric collection, I may further mention the vast quantities of perforated pieces of amber found in the peat; further, the skeletons of men, with part of their flesh, their hair, their beard, and with their splendidly preserved clothes, found in the very rudest kind of coffins, made of trunks of oak trees, which had been cut asunder and hollowed out by fire. As these coffins were not found in the peat, but in mounds of earth, and must belong to a high antiquity, we can only attribute the preservation of the bodies to the tanning quality of the oak tree. The heart and part of the flesh of one of the bodies is preserved here in alcohol.

If, after having examined the immense and quite inestimable archaeological treasures of this museum, one looks to the miserable building in which they are recklessly heaped up, and of which only the walls are of stone, while the floors, the ceilings, the window-shutters, and the roofs are of wood; and if one thinks that all these treasures, of which the Danish nation is justly proud, might be destroyed by fire in less than ten minutes, one feels revolted at the extreme negligence of the Danish Government, which never knows how to keep what it has, and which only opens its eyes and cries when it is too late! But if these treasures are of so little value to the Danish Government that it exposes them to the most imminent danger, why then, in the name of sound reason, does it not sell them to England or France, which would joyfully pay for them the whole amount of the Danish debt, and which would jealously keep those rich collections in museums of nothing but stone and iron?

HENRY SCHLEMMANN.

## SCIENCE.

MEETING OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

*Address delivered before the British Association at Bristol, August 25, 1875, by Sir John Hawkshaw, F.R.S., President. (London: Printed by Spottiswoode & Co.)*

SIR JOHN HAWKSHAW'S Address, notwithstanding his modest comparison of these "humbler themes" with the discourses of past Presidents, deals with matters which directly concern the welfare and comfort of all civilised beings, and is well worthy of the dignity of the profession to which his lifetime has been devoted. The magnitude of the works of the engineer, and the intimate connexion between them and the profoundest social problems, justify the high esteem in which the President holds the subjects of his address. To compress into the narrow limits of a single discourse an outline of the earliest engineering triumphs and the latest developments of mechanical ingenuity is an almost impossible task; and although we confess to a feeling of disappointment at hearing so little about some matters of interest, we recognise that the task is faced in the resolute practical spirit which characterises the true engineer.

The history of the art of the engineer, like that of many other branches of knowledge, is one of rapid growth during the last century, following a slow and broken progress from the times of earliest civilisation. It has repeated its inventions in different ages:—

"The ancient Egyptians had a knowledge of metallurgy, much of which was lost during the years of decline which followed the golden age of their civilisation. The art of casting bronze over iron was known to the Assyrians, though it has only lately been introduced into modern metallurgy; and patents were granted in 1609 for processes connected with the manufacture of glass which had been practised centuries before."

Even rattening is by no means a modern practice, for (on the authority of Pliny) we learn that "an inventor in the reign of Tiberius, who devised a method of producing flexible glass" suffered the destruction of his manufactory "in order to prevent the manufacture of copper, silver, and gold from becoming depreciated."

The history of the Suez Canal furnishes examples of the repetition of blunders and obstacles from want of knowledge of what had been previously done. It was asserted that a difference of 32½ feet existed between the level of the Red Sea and that of the Mediterranean. Laplace denied this; but centuries before his time—

"a fear of flooding Egypt with the waters of the Red Sea made Darius, and in later times again Ptolemy, hesitate to open the canal between Suez and the Nile. Yet this canal was made and was in use some centuries before the time of Darius."

Early in the growth of societies, men of learning perform multifarious services; thus mathematicians and astronomers, painters and sculptors, and priests, performed the duties of the architect and engineer. But the extension of art produces specialisation, and "we find men of ability and learning devoting a great part of their time to building and architecture, and the post of

architect became one of honour and profit." Division of labour existed as a necessary condition of the carrying out of large works, and in Assyria and in Egypt, as afterwards in the Roman Empire, special duties and crafts were practised by separate men.

The earliest works which display a knowledge of engineering are found in the East, and, without deciding whether the people of Chaldaea and Babylonia borrowed from Egypt, we know that "some four or five thousand years ago there were men in Mesopotamia and Egypt who possessed considerable mechanical knowledge and no little skill in hydraulic engineering."

Engineering like architecture was early associated with religion. "The largest stones were chosen for sacred buildings that they might be more enduring as well as more imposing;" a development of mechanical contrivances for moving them, an improvement in tools for working them, followed as things of course. The working of metals was perfected in making images of the gods and the adornment of shrines.

To an engineer the pyramids of Gizeh are admirable. Although they are the earliest, and were built 5,000 years ago, they are unrivalled. The masonry could not be surpassed in these days, and moreover "the design is perfect for the purpose for which they were intended, above all to endure." The building of pyramids continued for some ten centuries, and from sixty to seventy still remain; many contain enormous blocks of granite from thirty to forty feet long, weighing more than 300 tons, and display the greatest ingenuity in the way in which the sepulchral chambers are constructed and concealed.

A more difficult operation than the mere transport of weight, that of erecting obelisks weighing more than 400 tons, was performed with precision by the Egyptians, but their method of lifting them remains unknown. The use of large stones in fortifications was known to the Peruvians; in India, "from their repugnance to the use of the arch," builders have commonly used large blocks both in bridges and in buildings. But the Romans surpassed in mechanics the Egyptians who set up obelisks, since they transported them from Egypt, and afterwards erected them at Rome, where more are now to be found than remain in Egypt. Large stones were used in the temples of Baalbek, erected under Roman rule; one lies ready quarried which is seventy feet long and fourteen feet square, and weighs upwards of 1,135 tons, or nearly as much as one of the tubes of the Britannia Bridge.

The ancient Assyrians and Egyptians have recorded on their walls by painting and sculpture the methods employed in transporting these masses. Apparently the lever was the only mechanical power used, and with unlimited supplies of human labour this would be the most direct and expeditious implement; but it is probable that other mechanical aids were employed where stones such as obelisks had to be lifted. From a carved slab, moreover, which formed part of the wall panels of the palace of Sardanapalus we learn that the pulley was known in a simple form.

The use of iron, and probably also of steel,

dates from very remote times. Egyptians, Hebrews, Assyrians certainly regarded iron as a common metal, and as there is no great secret in making steel they probably had the use of this also. Steel may even have been accidentally produced by a less vigorous blast than would suffice for making wrought iron. The supply of iron in India as early as the fourth and fifth centuries seems to have been unlimited. The remarkable iron pillar of Delhi is in a single piece, fifty feet in length, and weighs not less than seventeen tons:—

"An interesting social problem is afforded by a comparison of the relative conditions of India and this country at the present time. India, from thirty to forty centuries ago, was skilled in the manufacture of iron and cotton goods, which manufactures, in less than a century, have done so much for this country. It is true that in India coal is not so abundant or so universally distributed as in this country. Yet, if we look still further to the East, China had probably knowledge of the use of metals as soon as India, and moreover had a boundless store of iron and coal. Marco Polo tells us that coal was universally used as fuel in the parts of China which he visited towards the end of the fourteenth century, and from other sources we have reason to believe it was used there as fuel 2,000 years ago."

The art of extracting metals from the ore was practised at an early date in this country. The ancient tin workings in Cornwall are well known, and as the Britons used iron they probably got it for themselves; also the Roman iron works in the Weald of Kent are remarkable for their extent. But the enormous increase of the mining and metallurgical industries began with this century; the use of coal for smelting superseded that of charcoal, and we find that in 1873 the quantity of pig iron produced in the United Kingdom was 6½ million tons, and the coal raised amounted to 127 million tons.

The early building energy of the world was chiefly spent on tombs, temples, and palaces. In Egypt, as we have seen, the art of building in stone had, 5,000 years ago, reached the greatest perfection; ten centuries later, in Mesopotamia, the art of building with brick was in an equally advanced state. The pyramidal buildings were very massive, and are only in ruins because they have served as quarries for the building of modern towns. The Assyrian mounds and temples are the largest, but the pyramidal temples of Chaldaea far surpass them in the excellence of their brickwork.

Egypt was probably far better irrigated in the days of the Pharaohs than it is now. Reservoirs were constructed on a vast scale, which is unapproached even in these days of immense works. The régime of the great rivers was studied in Mesopotamia or in Egypt, and records were kept of the rise of waters. Canals, dams and tunnels were made with great skill. A remarkable work was the canal which effected a junction between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. Its length was about eighty miles; its width admitted of two triremes passing one another.

"At least one of the navigable canals of Babylonia, attributed to Nebuchadnezzar, can compare in extent with any work of later times. Sir H. Rawlinson has traced this canal throughout the greater part of its course, from Hit on the

Euphrates to the Persian Gulf, a distance of between four and five hundred miles. It is a proof of the estimation in which such works were held in Babylonia and Assyria, that, among the titles of the god Vul were those of 'Lord of Canals,' and 'The Establisher of Irrigation Works.'"

The spread of knowledge of construction was from East to West, from Asia over Europe, from Semitic and Turanian to Aryan. Of all nations of Europe the Greeks were most intimately connected with the civilisation of the East. The tracks of their trading vessels gave the lines upon which colonisation followed, and thus more than any other people they helped to spread Eastern knowledge and arts along the shores of the Mediterranean and throughout the south of Europe.

The Etruscans—to pass over the vexed question of their race, in which Sir John Hawkshaw takes Mr. Isaac Taylor's side of the controversy—were the founders of Italian, as the so-called Pelasgians were the founders of Greek art, and were remarkable for their purely constructive or engineering works. Their city walls, drainage works and tunnels are most remarkable.

War, with all its attendant evils, has often benefited mankind. Siege operations have developed many inventions, and the necessity of roads and bridges for military purposes has often led to their being made where the necessary stimulus from other causes was wanting. Such was the case under the Roman Empire. The ambition of Napoleon covered France and her subject countries with a system of military roads, and in this country the want of roads, so keenly felt at the time of the rebellion of 1745, led to the construction of a system unequalled since the time of the Roman occupation. And lastly, in India, in Germany and in Russia, more than one example could be pointed out where industry will finally benefit by railways which have originated in military precautions rather than in commercial requirements.

The water supply of Rome, with its nine aqueducts, is a monument of her engineering power. Harbour works and bridges, basilicas and baths, and numerous other works in Europe, in Asia, and in Africa were executed under her rule. With the fall of the Empire progress in Europe stopped for a time: but

"With the seventh century began the rise of the Mohammedan power, and a partial return to conditions apparently more favourable to the progress of industrial art, when widespread lands were again united under the sway of powerful rulers. Science owes much to Arab scholars, who kept and handed on to us the knowledge acquired so slowly in ancient times, and much of which would have been lost but for them. Still, few useful works remain, to mark the supremacy of the Mohammedan power, at all comparable to those of the age which preceded its rise.

"A great building age began in Europe in the tenth century, and lasted through the thirteenth. It was during this period that these great ecclesiastical buildings were erected, which are not more remarkable for artistic excellence than for boldness in design. . . .

"From the twelfth to the thirteenth centuries, with the revival of the arts and sciences in the Italian republics, many important works were undertaken for the improvement of the rivers and harbours of Italy. In 1481 canal locks were first

used; and some of the earliest of which we have record were erected by Leonardo da Vinci, who would be remembered as a skilful engineer had he not left other greater and more attractive works to claim the homage of posterity."

"It is frequently easier to lead water where it is wanted than to check its irruption into places where its presence is an evil, often a disaster. For centuries the existence of a large part of Holland has been dependent on the skill of man. How soon he began in that country to contest with the sea the possession of the land we do not know, but early in the twelfth century dykes were constructed to keep back the ocean. As the prosperity of the country increased with the great extension of its commerce, and land became more valuable and necessary for an increasing population, very extensive works were undertaken. Land was reclaimed from the sea, canals were cut, and machines were designed for lifting water. To the practical knowledge acquired by the Dutch, whose method of carrying out hydraulic works is original and of native growth, much of the knowledge of the present day in embanking, and draining, and canal making is due.

"While the Dutch were getting this knowledge and we in Britain were benefiting by their experience, the disastrous results of the inundations caused by the Italian rivers of the Alps gave a new importance to the study of hydraulics. Some of the greatest philosophers of the seventeenth century—among them Torricelli, a pupil of Galileo—were called upon to advise and superintend engineering works; nor did they confine themselves to the construction of preventive works, but thoroughly investigated the condition pertaining to fluids at rest or in motion, and gave to the world a valuable series of works on hydraulics and hydraulic engineering, which form the basis of our knowledge of these subjects at the present day."

We must pass over the sketch of the history of locomotive improvements in England, culminating in the invention and perfection of the steam-engine. Perhaps the greatest ingenuity and creative mechanical genius are displayed in machines used for making textile fabrics. It was not until a late period that the manufacture of such fabrics was established on a large scale in Europe. China had the use of silk for clothing some thousands of years ago; but in Europe, in the time of Aurelian, the empress had to forego the costly luxury of a silk gown; and so slowly did the use of silk travel westward, that James V. had to borrow a pair of silk hose from the Earl of Mar that he might not "appear as a scrub" before strangers.

"Cotton, of which the manufacture in India dates from before historical times, had scarcely by the Christian era reached Persia and Egypt. Spain in the tenth and Italy in the fourteenth century manufactured it, but Manchester, which is now the great metropolis of the trade, not until the latter half of the seventeenth century.

"Linen was worn by the old Egyptians, and some of their linen mummy cloths surpass in fineness any linen fabrics made in later days. The Babylonians wore linen also and wool, and obtained a widespread fame for skill in workmanship and beauty in design.

"In this country wool long formed the staple for clothing. Silk was the first rival, but its costliness placed it beyond the reach of the many. To introduce a new material or improved machine into this or other countries a century or more ago was no light undertaking. Inventors and would-be benefactors alike ran the risk of loss of life. Loud was the outcry made in the early part of the eighteenth century against the introduction of Indian cottons and Dutch calicoes."



The year 1738 saw Wyatt's invention, which was further improved by Arkwright, for spinning by rollers instead of the fingers. In 1770 Hargreaves patented the spinning jenny, and Crompton the mule in 1775. In less than a century after Wyatt's day double mules were working in Manchester with over 2,000 spindles.

"Improvements in machines for weaving were begun at an earlier date. In 1579 a ribbon loom is said to have been invented at Dantzic, by which from four to six pieces could be woven at one time; but the machine was destroyed, and the inventor lost his life. In 1800 Jacquard's most ingenious invention was brought into use, which, by a simple mechanical operation, determines the movements of the threads which form the pattern in weaving. But the greatest discovery in the art of weaving was wrought by Cartwright's discovery of the power loom, which led eventually to the substitution of steam for manual labour, and enabled a boy with a steam loom to do fifteen times the work of a man with a hand loom."

There has been in little more than one generation vast progress in steamboats, the electric telegraph, and railways, the extent of which is perhaps better known and appreciated. Yet it is amusing to hear that—

"It is not more than forty years since one of our scientific men, and an able one too, declared at a meeting of the British Association that no steamboat would ever cross the Atlantic; founding his statement on the impracticability, in his view, of a steamboat carrying sufficient coal, profitably, for the voyage. Yet, soon after this statement was made, the *Sirius* steamed from Bristol to New York in seventeen days, and was soon followed by the *Great Western*, which made the homeward passage in thirteen and a half days; and with these voyages the era of steamboats began. Like most important inventions, that of the steamboat was a long time in assuming a form capable of being profitably utilised; and even when it had assumed such a form, the objections of commercial and scientific men had still to be overcome."

The barest summary of the history of the telegraph is all that is possible on the present occasion. The first useful telegraph was constructed in 1838, Messrs. Wheatstone's and Cooke's instruments being employed, while at the present time there are 400,000 miles of telegraph in use. Among the most important inventions of recent years have been the automatic telegraphs:—

"In this country the machine invented by Sir Charles Wheatstone, to whom telegraphy owes so much, is chiefly employed. By his machine, after the message has been punched out in a paper ribbon by one machine on a system analogous to the dot and dash of Morse, the sequence of the currents requisite to transmit the message along the wire is automatically determined in a second machine by this perforated ribbon. This second operation is analogous to that by which in Jacquard's loom the motion of the threads requisite to produce the pattern is determined by perforated cards."

One of the most striking phenomena in telegraphy is the duplex system, which enables messages to be sent from each end of the same wire at the same time. This practice was early suggested, but has only been possible with our more perfect insulation.

The introduction of deep-sea telegraphs affords examples of a courage in attacking a difficult problem which has hardly ever been surpassed. Although now 50,000 miles of cable are in use, to get at this result nearly

70,000 miles have been constructed and laid. Now that cables are tested under water, and made with stronger sheathing, many of the old failures are avoided.

On the subject of Railways the President speaks thus:—

"You have all an interest in them: you all demand to be carried safely, and you insist on being carried fast. Besides, everybody understands, or thinks he understands, a railway, and therefore I shall be speaking on a subject common to all of us, and shall possibly only put before you ideas which others as well as myself have already entertained."

"We who live in these days of roads and railways, and can move with a fair degree of comfort, speed, and safety, almost where we will, can scarcely realise the state of England two centuries ago, when the years of opposition which preceded the era of coaches began; when, as in 1662, there were but six stages in all England, and John Crossdell, of the Charterhouse, thought there were six too many; when Sir Henry Herbert, a member of the House of Commons, could say, 'If a man were to propose to carry us regularly to Edinburgh in coaches in seven days, and bring us back in seven more, should we not vote him to Bedlam?'"

But in spite of the suggested insanity of the projectors coaches and railways were made.

"The Stockton and Darlington Railway was opened in 1825, the Liverpool and Manchester Railway in 1830, and in the short time which has since elapsed, railways have been extended to every quarter of the globe; and at present different countries possess in the aggregate about 160,000 miles of railway."

"Railways add enormously to the national wealth. More than twenty-five years ago it was proved to the satisfaction of a committee of the House of Commons, from facts and figures which I then adduced, that the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, of which I was the engineer, and which then formed the principal railway connexion between the populous towns of Lancashire and Yorkshire, effected a saving to the public using the railway of more than the whole amount of the dividend which was received by the proprietors. These calculations were based solely on the amount of traffic carried by the railway, and on the difference between the railway rate of charge and the charges by the modes of conveyance anterior to railways. No credit whatever was taken for the saving of time, though in England pre-eminently time is money."

"Considering that railway charges on many items have been considerably reduced since that day, it may be safely assumed that the railways in the British Islands now produce, or rather save to the nation, a much larger sum annually than the gross amount of all the dividends payable to the proprietors."

Whenever a railway can be made at a cost to yield the ordinary interest of money it is in the national interest that it should be made; and there are, moreover, cases where a government may wisely contribute to undertakings which would otherwise fail to obtain the necessary support.

The question of safety in railway travelling, although it depends in the first case upon the perfection of the machinery of the railway and its plant, depends also on the nature and quantity of traffic, and lastly on human care and attention.

If railways were in the hands of the Government, it is doubtful whether they would be worked with greater safety. It is doubtful whether abler men would be attracted to the service, and Government would not pay their officers better than, or perhaps as well as,

the companies do. With a despotic rule the number of trains would possibly be reduced, with almost certain discomfort to the public. The employment of 250,000 men would be a seriously heavy charge, and the assumption of all the railways would bring Government into conflict with passengers, traders, merchants and manufacturers.

The returns of the Board of Trade of the numbers and averages of accidents on railways are not to be depended upon, because of the omission of the length of journey made by each passenger and the journey made by season-ticket holders. If these items are considered, a table which is subjoined to the address affords comforting evidence that the proportion of accidents increases less rapidly than the traffic in the ratio of four to nine.

Sir John Hawkshaw then briefly spoke of the economy which might and should be effected in the use of coal by manufacturers, rebuking the "intractable householder" for his wastefulness, and of the improvements in the manufacture of ordnance. He concluded his interesting retrospect thus:—

"In what we choose to call the ideal we do not surpass the ancients. Poets and painters and sculptors were as great in former times as now; so, probably, were the mathematicians."

"In what depends on the accumulation of experience, we ought to excel our forerunners. Engineering depends largely on experience; nevertheless, in future times whenever difficulties shall arise or works have to be accomplished for which there is no precedent, he who has to perform the duty may step forth from any of the walks of life, as engineers have not unfrequently hitherto done."

"The marvellous progress of the last two generations should make everyone cautious of predicting the future. Of engineering works, however, it may be said that their practicability or impracticability is often determined by other elements than the inherent difficulty in the works themselves. Greater works than any yet achieved remain to be accomplished—not perhaps yet awhile. Society may not yet require them; the world could not at present afford to pay for them."

"The progress of engineering works, if we consider it, and the expenditure upon them, has already in our time been prodigious. One hundred and sixty thousand miles of railway alone, put into figures at 20,000*l.* a mile, amounts to 3,200 million pounds sterling; add 400,000 miles of telegraph at 100*l.* a mile, and 100 millions more for sea canals, docks, harbours, water and sanitary works constructed in the same period, and we get the enormous sum of 3,340 millions sterling expended in one generation and a half on what may undoubtedly be called useful works."

"The wealth of nations may be impaired by expenditure on luxuries and war; it cannot be diminished by expenditure on works like these."

"As to the future, we know we cannot create a force; we can, and no doubt shall, greatly improve the application of those with which we are acquainted. What are called inventions can do no more than this, yet how much every day is being done by new machines and instruments."

"The telescope extended our vision to distant worlds. The spectroscope has far outstripped that instrument, by extending our powers of analysis to regions as remote."

"Postal deliveries were and are great and able organisations, but what are they to the telegraph?"

"Need we try to extend our vision into futurity farther? Our present knowledge, compared to what is unknown even in physics, is infinitesimal. We may never discover a new force—yet, who can tell?"

*The Marriage of Near Kin.* By Alfred Henry Huth. (London: J. & A. Churchill, 1875.)

THE extent of Mr. Huth's labour in writing this book may be estimated from the fact that the mere list of the works from which he quotes covers eight pages of small type: but it is to be regretted that he should not have shown greater discrimination in quotation; for we find poor authorities sometimes quoted as of equal weight with good ones. He sets before himself two questions: first, whether consanguineous marriages are injurious in themselves; and, secondly whether they intensify dormant hereditary taints of disease. To answer the first, he says, "we may safely apply experiment on the organic world," and the second must be settled by large statistical enquiries.

The general plan of his work is as follows: to consider the various marriage restrictions which have obtained in all races and at all times, and to explain their origin; to examine the vital statistics of various small communities which are known to intermarry much among themselves; to discuss various statistical enquiries; the effects of interbreeding among animals, and the alleged benefit accruing to mankind from a change of blood; and, finally, to consider the origin of the division of the sexes.

Throughout the book Mr. Huth shows himself a strong advocate for the harmlessness of these marriages, but he appears to be very candid in the full statement of the difficulties in his case.

In the earlier chapters he shows that many races have practised the closest intermarriage, and apparently with little or no ill results, and that an innate horror among mankind for such intermarriage is either very small or non-existent. He observes with justice how improbable it is that the unforeseeing savage should have observed those ill-effects of intermarriage, about which the moderns, with all science in support, are still disputing. He accordingly would explain all the curious marriage customs by reference to the practices of exogamy and endogamy; and he shows successfully how large an influence religious ideas and Christian asceticism have had in the establishment of the modern code of prohibited degrees. Whether the causes adduced by him are powerful enough to explain all the facts, may be doubted; although his case seems stronger than one would have been inclined to expect *à priori*. At any rate this part of his work affords a mine of curious facts for the anthropologist, and it would be of much value, even if it possessed no other merit than this.

It is, of course, impossible within the limits of this article to follow Mr. Huth in his long and careful analysis of the various statistical enquiries with respect to consanguineous marriage. It may, however, be interesting to see how the most alarming opinions held by some writers, as to evils arising from these marriages, are justified by their facts. The following summary, quoted direct from a paper by M. Boudin (*Ann. d'Hygiène Publ.* tom. xviii. pp. 5-82), is indeed a formidable accusation:—

"De l'ensemble des faits qui précèdent, nous déduirons les propositions générales suivantes:

1. Les mariages consanguins représentent en France environ 2 pour 100 de l'ensemble des mariages, tandis que la proportion des sourds-muets de naissance, issus de mariages consanguins, est à l'ensemble des sourds-muets de naissance:

a. A Lyon, au moins de 25 pour 100;

b. A Paris, de 28 pour 100;

c. A Bordeaux, de 30 pour 100.

2. La proportion des sourds-muets de naissance croît avec le degré de la consanguinité des parents; si l'on représente par 1 le danger de procréer un enfant sourd-muet dans un mariage ordinaire, ce danger est représenté par:

18 dans les mariages entre cousins-germains;

37 dans les mariages entre oncles et nièces;

70 dans les mariages entre neveux et tantes.

3. A Berlin, on compte:

3.1 Sourds-muets sur 10,000 catholiques;

6 Sourds-muets sur 10,000 chrétiens en grande majorité protestants;

27 Sourds-muets sur 10,000 juifs.

En d'autres termes, la proportion des sourds-muets croît avec la somme des facilités accordées aux unions consanguines par les lois civiles et religieuses.

4. On comptait en 1840 dans le territoire de Iowa (Etats-Unis);

2.3 Sourds-muets sur 10,000 blancs;

212 Sourds-muets sur 10,000 esclaves.

C'est-à-dire que dans la population de couleur, dans laquelle l'esclavage facilite les unions consanguines et même incestueuses, la proportion des sourds-muets était QUATRE-VINGT-ONZE fois plus élevée que dans la population blanche, protégée par les lois civiles, morales et religieuses.

5. La surdi-mutité ne se produit pas toujours directement par les parents consanguins: on la voit se manifester parfois indirectement dans les mariages croisés, dont l'un des conjoints était issu de mariages consanguins (Voy. p. 10.)

6. Les parents consanguins les mieux portants peuvent procréer des enfants sourds-muets; par contre, des parents sourds-muets, mais non-consanguins, ne produisent des enfants sourds-muets que très exceptionnellement; la fréquence de la surdi-mutité chez les enfants issus de parents consanguins est donc radicalement indépendante de toute influence d'hérédité morbide.

7. Le nombre des sourds-muets augmente souvent d'une manière très sensible dans les localités dans lesquelles il existe des obstacles naturels aux mariages croisés. Ainsi la proportion des sourds-muets qui est, pour l'ensemble de la France, de 6 sur 10,000 habitants, et de 2 seulement pour le département de la Seine, s'élève:—

En Corse, à 14 sur 10,000 habitants;

Dans les Hautes-Alpes, à 23;

En Islande, à 11;

Dans le canton de Berne, à 28.

8. On peut estimer à environ 250,000 le nombre total de sourds-muets en Europe.

9. Les alliances consanguines sont accusées encore de favoriser chez les parents, l'infécondité, l'avortement, chez les produits, l'albinisme, l'aliénation mentale, l'idiotisme, la rétinite pigmentée et autres infirmités; mais ces diverses propositions nous paraissent réclamer une démonstration numérique rigoureuse qui leur manque plus ou moins jusqu'ici."

Let us now see, with Mr. Huth, how some of these portentous results are established. It appears that out of two million and odd marriages registered in France between 1853-9, .9 per cent. are registered as between uncles and nieces, nephews and aunts, and first cousins. The regulations of prefectures (says M. Dally) prescribe the registration of such marriages, yet these registrations are incomplete in the towns, and entirely neglected in the communes. The manual actually recommended by the Minister of the Interior for the *employés* who keep the registers, does not contain any

declaration as to the kinships of parties to marriage. M. Legoyt, the head of the Statistical Office of France, says that these registrations are worthless except as affecting marriages between uncles and nieces, and nephews and aunts. In Paris it appears that the registers are more carefully kept, and here 1.4 per cent. of all marriages are within the above degrees. The proportion .9 per cent. is, in the opinion of M. Legoyt, three or four times too small for the whole of France—this would bring up the proportion to over 3 per cent.\*

But M. Boudin is not content with this .9 per cent. (itself worthless), but proceeds to add a confessedly conjectural 1.1 per cent., so as to comprise within the consanguineous marriages those between second cousins. Thus the 2 per cent. on which M. Boudin founds his argument is of no value whatever. I should agree with M. Dally in thinking that from 5 to 10 per cent. would be nearer the mark. On this Mr. Huth justly observes,—

"We have, therefore, absolutely no basis from which to start a statistical enquiry as to the effect of consanguineous marriage on the offspring."

Mr. Huth makes a general statement, that it is a pure assumption that asylums and institutions are "a true mirror of the state of deaf-mutism in the general population;" and he clearly thinks that they are not so. But here I cannot follow him, as, in my opinion, he does not assign sufficient reasons for their not being so. What conceivable reason can there be for institutions to select their patients from among the offspring of consanguineous marriages by preference? If the numbers collected are large enough, it certainly seems that we ought to attain true results.

Now the cases on which M. Boudin bases his result that 28 per cent. of the Paris deaf-mutes are offspring of consanguineous marriages are only sixty-seven. And, besides, M. Dally went to the same institution, and by analysing former cases, found that out of 124 congenitally deaf-mutes, one was the offspring of an aunt and nephew, six of first cousins and eleven of distant cousins up to the seventh degree. Results so astoundingly divergent surely justify us in putting aside this part of the enquiry as unworthy of notice.

Mr. Huth concludes from M. Dally's figures, that the number of deaf-mutes at Paris, offspring of kinsmen, is not out of proportion to the estimated number of consanguineous marriages. And this coincides with the result of my own enquiry, when the number of cases collected was considerable. It seems far more satisfactory to set before one a definite relationship—as that of first cousins—than to try to hunt up any conceivable relationship between the parents. Several of those who so kindly contributed to my statistics seemed surprised at the small proportion of the offspring of first cousins among their pupils, when they came

\* This is, to me, an interesting confirmation of my own results (*Statist. Soc. Journ.*, June, 1875); for I concluded that the proportion of first-cousin marriages in London was  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and between 2 and 3 per cent. for other districts. The equal division of property in France would tend to make such marriages more frequent there than in England.



to make accurate enquiries; for almost all had some preconceptions on this head.

Again, M. Boudin quotes M. Piroux to the effect that 21 per cent. of the deaf-mutes at Nancy are the offspring of consanguineous marriages—and these, it will be remembered, only comprise kinship within the degree of second cousins. Now M. Piroux himself says, that the proportion is from 15 to 17 per cent. as a maximum, comprising the most distant degrees of relationship.

M. Perrin is quoted as giving 25 per cent., or “an moins un quart,” as the proportion at Lyons. Now M. Perrin says:—

“I have never made any statement on the subject of deaf-mutism caused by consanguineous marriages. They were merely some verbal data which I gave to M. Devay. I can hardly remember the fact myself. Besides, no register of this establishment will show whether cases of deaf-mutism result from consanguineous marriages or not.”

But too much space has already been devoted to M. Boudin, and we cannot go through the rest of the formidable indictment. M. Boudin's honesty of purpose cannot be suspected, but his paper affords a curious example of how far the fervour of advocacy may vitiate an investigation.

It was not to be expected that Mr. Huth should play havoc with all the statistical enquiries as successfully as M. Dally has done with this one; but he seems to throw doubt on all the more alarming results. The impression with which the whole discussion leaves one is, that the evidence is so conflicting that further investigation is much wanted.

Mr. Huth then discusses the interbreeding of animals both in a state of nature and under domestication. The evidence is here again very conflicting. The very important experiments of M. Legrain on incestuous interbreeding of rabbits seem to show that the direct ill-effects are small, while the evil arising from the multiplication of identical germs, when there is any disease in the parents, may become very serious.

The facts given with respect to half-breed races of mankind throughout the world are no doubt very important; but they appear beside the mark in the present discussion, and are more appropriate to the determination of the specific distinctness of the various races of man.

The last chapter is devoted to the difficult biological problem of the existence of two sexes, and although I do not possess the knowledge necessary to criticise Mr. Huth adequately, I will venture to point out a few considerations which tell against his argument.

He argues with some truth that the separation of the sexes is a division, and therefore a saving of physiological labour, and that the functions of reproduction are carried out better thus, than if the sexes were undivided; hermaphroditism is, he says, only a less perfect form of division.

But it may be pointed out in answer to this, that, at least in the case of flowers, the waste in useless pollen and unfertilised ovules probably far outbalances the saving; and this is strongly confirmed by the case of the cleistogone flowers referred to below.

If then, he argues, there is this saving of physiological labour, are we justified in

postulating another cause for the division of sexes, namely, the necessity of change insisted on by Mr. Darwin? Yet Mr. Huth admits that the contrivances of orchids show that

“there must evidently be some advantage in crossing; but it by no means follows that because we cannot just now state precisely wherein this advantage consists, it must necessarily consist in the cross, as a cross. In that case the necessity of crosses would not be the exception that it is; instead of nearly all hermaphrodites being able to cross, they would be obliged to do so, as are most orchids.”

And he adduces the remarkable saving of pollen in orchids, as compared with wind-fertilised flowers, as a proof of the gain accruing to orchids from these complex contrivances.

It is quite true that there is a great gain on this head, but the case of the cleistogone flowers, of the common violet for example, seems to prove distinctly that the object of the contrivances is not merely this saving. This plant sends up, besides its ordinary flowers, with their copious supply of pollen and their violet flag, others which never open, and with only a few grains of pollen, and in which self-fertilisation is a certainty. Now what can this mean unless it is that the violet is insuring itself against the failure of its lavish investment for cross-fertilisation, at the smallest physiological expenditure?

Mr. Huth also says that as a cross tends to produce atavism, therefore it is, as such, actually damaging, from retarding the process of evolution pursued by any form. Now surely the tables may here be turned on him.

It is admitted on all hands that in no case is self-fertilisation perpetual, while in the great majority of cases cross-fertilisation is of frequent occurrence; if then crosses have an ill effect as causing remote atavism, and delaying the evolution of advantageous forms, they must have some all-important advantage as crosses, or else Nature would not have elaborated so many and so wasteful contrivances for certain or possible crossing, to the detriment of the general course of development. Were Mr. Huth's argument sound, we might expect to find at least some few elaborate plans in nature to secure perpetual self-fertilisation, and I am assured by my father, Mr. Darwin, that, as far as his knowledge goes, such are absolutely unknown.

Lastly, I may add that my father has now been carrying on experiments for about nine years on the crossing of plants, and his results appear to him absolutely conclusive as to the advantages of cross-fertilisation to plants; although as the investigation is as yet unpublished, Mr. Huth, of course, could not be aware of this. Now, all modern biological research points to the legitimacy of arguing by analogy between forms even as distinct as animals and plants, and accordingly the fair deduction to be made from this enquiry will be, that what is good or bad for plants is the same for mankind and animals.

But this purely scientific point stands rather apart from what is in fact the main practical question at issue, viz.—Is consan-

guineous marriage, to the extent to which it is now practised by civilised nations, detrimental, and is the detriment so great as to justify legislative interference? Mr. Huth himself must be forced to admit that it must be to some extent detrimental from the multiplication of identical pathological germs, and from the fact that no man knows with certainty until towards the end of life, what ills may lie hidden in his edition of the family constitution; but by his work he makes a good case for the opinion that the evil seems thus far practically small, and that legislative interference is so far uncalled for; and this opinion my own recent enquiry confirms.

Were it only as being a careful and complete compilation of all that has been written on this important subject, Mr. Huth's work would merit great approbation; but he deserves much higher praise than this, for he has ably shown how rash, and almost unscrupulous have been the so-called investigations of some writers, and he teaches them that even a vehement advocate may be candid and fair.\*

GEORGE DARWIN.

#### ROYAL COMMISSION ON SCIENTIFIC INSTRUCTION AND THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE: SIXTH, SEVENTH AND EIGHTH REPORTS.

(Second Notice.)

THE sixth Report of the commissioners, which deals with the teaching of science in public and endowed schools, is contained in a Blue Book of large dimensions. The Report itself occupies only ten pages, but the appendices, in which consists the real value of the publication, swell the volume to a total of more than 250 pages of folio. The secretary to the Commission, Mr. Norman Lockyer, was deputed as an assistant-commissioner to obtain through printed circulars and by personal visits, a comparative survey of the state of science-teaching in secondary schools, and of the various systems and appliances of instruction employed. This method of obtaining the required information was thought more desirable than the customary examination of a large number of witnesses, and the elaborate and luminous sub-report which it has produced amply justifies its adoption. On other subjects the commissioners have published separate volumes of evidence, but in this case their Report and the evidence on which it is based are comprised within the same volume.

The conclusion arrived at is “that the present state of scientific instruction in our upper schools is extremely unsatisfactory.” “The returns furnished by the public schools show that, even where science is taught, from one to two hours' work per week may be regarded, with very few exceptions, as the usual time allotted to it in such classes as receive scientific instruction at all. Moreover, the instruction in science is generally confined to certain classes in the school.” “Of the 128 minor endowed schools from which returns were received, only eighteen devote as much as four hours a week to the teaching of science, and only thirteen have a laboratory of any kind.” The Report then quotes from the opinions favourable to the extension of science-teaching in secondary schools, which have either been expressed

\* Since this article has been in print my father has received a letter from an illustrious Belgian man of science, wherefrom we learn that M. Legrain's experiments, referred to above, have been shown by Dr. Crocq to be “matériellement impossibles,” and that the whole of his so-called investigation is merely an “indigne mystification.” See *Bull. Acad. Roy. de Méd. de Belgique*, 1867, III<sup>e</sup> Série, Tom. I., No. 1. It does not appear that M. Legrain has ever made any reply to Dr. Crocq.

by individual witnesses or been embodied in the recommendations of the four boards of commissioners which have been dealing with such schools during the past fifteen years. The present commissioners, as is but consistent with their exclusively scientific character, go considerably beyond any of their predecessors. The general tendency of previous recommendations had been that physical science should be a compulsory subject in the intermediate classes of a school, but that the younger boys should be free, and the senior boys allowed an option. The more progressive of the public schools have to a considerable extent adapted themselves to this change in their curriculum, and the general result has been that while a moderate amount of scientific information has been diffused throughout the schools, some boys, who might otherwise have done nothing, have been enabled to distinguish themselves in the new study. This amount of progress, however, and the direction which it has taken, by no means satisfy the commissioners. They have, with one exception, pledged themselves to the principles that physical science should be equally taught to the whole school from the bottom to the top, that no public school boy is too young to receive some elementary teaching, and that the bifurcation of studies encouraged by the present system ought to be postponed until the university is reached.

Their recommendations are briefly these; but it should be known that one of their number, Professor Stokes, of Cambridge, dissents from the first of them, as being too inelastic:—

"1. That in all public and endowed schools, a substantial portion of the time allotted to study should, throughout the whole course (but subject to certain exceptional options), be devoted to natural science; and that not less than six hours a week on the average should be devoted to the purpose.

"2. That in all general school-examinations not less than one-sixth of the marks should be allotted to natural science.

"3. That in any leaving-examination the same proportion should be maintained."

It is impossible to discuss this matter further in this place, but it is proper to draw prominent attention to it as being the one fundamental question upon which hinge all the recommendations of the commissioners for the higher teaching of science. Their continual contention is that science is a complementary and not an exceptional part of education; that it should not be regarded merely as a bywork, whether to satisfy the natural curiosity of most, or to develop the peculiar tastes of a few; and that, if need be, Greek should yield place to it in the universal curriculum. The secretary of the Commission scarcely exaggerates this theory when he condemns in no measured language the existence of "modern schools" as being a "modern mistake," for he regards the premature differentiation of studies as fatal to the legitimate claims of science, as well as to the proportions of a liberal education. It is clear that the ultimate solution of this question involves an entire reconsideration both of what a liberal education ought to embrace, and also of the entire relations between the public schools and the universities, which have hitherto been governed by custom or by chance. It will be a fortunate circumstance for the interests of science, if the deliberate conclusions of this laborious and distinguished Commission should have the effect of determining these difficulties in favour of the theory here maintained; which, it must be admitted, is opposed to the practical experience of the great majority of schoolmasters, and is moreover barely reconcilable with the present tyrannical predominance of competitive examinations. Another consideration, which has apparently escaped the commissioners, is that their difficulties would almost solve themselves, if only the age for entering the universities were to be brought back nearer to its old limit, being reduced by about two years from that which has of

late become customary. In matters, however, of such moment, recommendations, and criticism, and even practical experience can do but little; time must be our chief assistant. A fundamental reform in our entire system of higher education cannot be effected in a day. On this topic the Report of the Commission appears rather narrow-minded, and indeed inexcusably oblivious both of the efforts which have been lately made in many schools, and of the difficulties which have been successfully encountered. The investigations of the secretary bring out only too clearly the general indifference of parents to the matter, the aversion of many boys from the learning of an extra subject, and the initial outlay of money which has at first to be undertaken. Nevertheless, it brings out with equal clearness that much good has been accomplished. An honourable status has once and for all been gained for physical science in our public schools; the headmasters and all the classical teachers have loyally co-operated in the reform; and the results which have been already gained are by no means unsatisfactory. Up to the present time few public schools have had an adequate science department for so long as ten years, and in 1870, when Mr. Lockyer was conducting his enquiries, things had not passed out of their transition stage. As regards the minor endowed schools, the date of this investigation was yet more unfortunate. The Endowed Schools Commissioners have not yet got half through their labours. All the new schemes of these commissioners require, as a substantial and indispensable branch of instruction, at least one branch of physical science. But few of the schemes were in actual operation at the time when the schoolmasters filled up the returns which are printed in the appendix to the Report, and not one for a period long enough to indicate what the probable results will be. Many schoolmasters also profess themselves embarrassed by the uncertainty which prevails as to the plans of the commissioners, as preventing funds from being applied to satisfy newly felt wants of scientific teaching. For these reasons, the Report of this Commission and the industry of the secretary, as revealed in the appendix, lose much of the value they would otherwise have possessed. It is at least unfair, if not impracticable, to judge of progress during the first years of a large experiment, and before the machinery has been brought into working order. The decision therefore of the commissioners quoted at the beginning of this notice, "that the present state of scientific instruction in our schools is extremely unsatisfactory," seems to us to be far too strongly worded, and barely true. The real value of the Report consists, not in the somewhat half-hearted recommendations which they base upon that decision, but in the elaborate mass of materials which the secretary has compiled, and in the thoroughness of the theory which they have enunciated with regard to the general position of science in a liberal education.

J. S. COTTON.

## SCIENCE NOTES.

### BOTANY.

*Palms*.—In addition to the papers on palms mentioned in our last notes, we have to notice another important contribution to palmology by Hermann Wendland and Oscar Drude. It is entitled "*Palme Australasicae: praeedit Dissertatio de Arcinarum generibus gerontogaeis*," and appeared in Parts II. and III. of the *Linnaea* for the present year. The distribution of the members of this family in Australasia is an interesting question in phyto-geography, and since the publication in 1855 of Baron F. Mueller's enumeration of the species then known in the *Fragmenta Phytographiae Australiae*, no general synopsis has appeared. Moreover the number of species has been doubled in the meantime by fresh discoveries, though the

area of the palm region in Australia has not been thereby much widened. In Australia palms are almost confined to the sea-shore, from 22° S. lat. on the north-west coast to 37° (not 35°, as stated by the authors of the present paper) on the east coast, being, so far as we know, entirely absent from the interior and the whole of the south and west coasts above the latitude indicated. It will be remembered that one species, *Areca sapida*, occurs in New Zealand, up to about 41° S. in Queen Charlotte's Sound, Middle Island; but there is no indigenous palm in Tasmania. The authors of the *Palme Australasicae* divide the species as follows:—1. Species imperii intratropici: *Calamus australis*, *C. caryotoides*, *C. radialis*, *Saccopadia australasica*, *Kentia acuminata*, *Hydriastele Wendlandiana*, *Ptychosperma elegans*, *Archontophoenix Alexandrae*, *A. Cunninghamiana*, *A. Veitchii*, *A. capitis-yorkii*, *Saguerus australasicus*, *Caryota Alberti*, *Livingstonia inermis*, *L. humilis*, *L. Leichardtii*, *L. Ramsayi*, *L. Muelleri*, *Licuala Muelleri*, and *Cocos nucifera*; 2. Species imperii australis-orientalis: *Calamus Muelleri*, *Linospadix monostachyos*, *Ptychosperma elegans*, *Archontophoenix Alexandrae*, *A. Cunninghamiana*, and *Livingstonia australis*; 3. Species imperii insulae, Lord Howe's Isles: *Griesebachia Beilmorrena*, *G. Forsteriana*, *Hedyoscape canterburyana*, and *Clinostigma Mooreana*. Thus it will be seen that most of the species have a rather limited range, and those in Lord Howe's Isles are all endemic. Excluding *Cocos*, which may or may not be indigenous, there are twenty-six species, of which twenty-two are found on the mainland, and ten south of the tropic of Capricorn. There is one subject for regret in the foregoing list, the large proportion of new genera founded, we are bound to say, on characters which would lead to an enormous increase of genera if adopted for the whole vegetable kingdom. It is a pity that Mr. Wendland, who is the first authority of the present time in all that concerns palms, should carry generic division so far.

*Germination of Chara*.—In the *Botanische Zeitung* Professor de Bary has recently contributed an exhaustive article on the germination of the *Characeae* in general. In the main the results of his researches confirm Pringsheim's views, as published in 1864 (*Jahrbuch für Wissenschaftliche Botanik*), especially with regard to the nature of the pro-embryo, which is not a direct prolongation of the oospore, but the outgrowth of one of two divisions of the latter equal in all respects at the time of partition, though subsequently exhibiting a different development. The direction and nature of the earlier divisions, formation of nodes, appearance and development of adventitious pro-embryos and roots, &c., are fully described and illustrated. But it is impossible to epitomise an article of this nature, or rather the article itself is unintelligible without the accompanying figures. It contains, however, some additional notes on parthenogenesis in the genus *Chara*, which, the author asserts, is established beyond doubt.

VEGETABLE morphology is a subject of so much importance from a practical point of view, to say nothing of the clues it affords in purely philosophical investigations, that we are pleased to see that a corner in the Economic Museum at Kew has been allotted to specimens illustrating the phenomena of this branch of biology. This includes what we may term vegetable pathology, a subject not to be lost sight of in the education and training of foresters. More recently this collection has been extended to include objects illustrating the inseparable study of vegetable teratology. To abnormal developments, or, as they are sometimes inaptly termed, malformations, we are indebted for much of our knowledge of the organography of plants. We hope to see this collection increase in proportion to its importance. We may perhaps be permitted to suggest that the entomological department, in so far as insects injurious to trees are concerned, should be the object of more attention, and that the cases containing the specimens



should, if possible, be placed within range of the eye. Doubtless they would be taken down for any one desirous of studying the insects, for we know from personal experience that every facility is given to those really engaged in the study of any particular class of objects; but many persons are too diffident, or unwilling to cause trouble, to prefer such a request. Of course, there are very many things to be considered in the formation and arrangement of collections of specimens embracing so wide a field, and small, dark rooms are not favourable to the display of objects requiring a good light to see them. On the other hand, some of the table-cases contain objects of subordinate interest. We may add that the morphological and teratological collections referred to are located in the "Old (No. 2) Museum."

The question whether varieties of plants wear out in time and become extinct is again occupying the attention of students of biology. More than half a century ago, Andrew Knight, in the *Philosophical Transactions*, propounded the theory of a natural limit to the existence of varieties; and more recently the subject was pretty fully discussed in the *Gardener's Chronicle*: Dr. Lindley, Mr. Masters and others taking part in the discussion. Dr. Lindley strongly contested the view. In the *Gardener's Chronicle* (October, 1874, p. 429) the theory is in a manner revived, in an article on the constitutions and diseases of plants; and Dr. Asa Gray, an American naturalist of the highest repute, has recently contributed an interesting article on the same subject to the *New York Tribune*, which has been copied into several of our horticultural papers, with or without comment. Knight's view that varieties propagated non-sexually (from cuttings, grafts, etc.) would not survive their seedling parents has long been disproved. Indeed, it is surprising that so unphilosophical a notion could ever have invaded the brain of a thinking man. Hitherto, there has been so little method brought to bear upon the enquiry, that we have as few facts to offer in support of either side of the argument now as the disputants of former years. The observations and experiments of a single life-time would do little towards solving the question without collateral evidence. There appears to be no doubt, and in this Dr. A. Gray concurs, that there is a distinct tendency to wearing out in non-sexually propagated varieties, and inferentially, continued self-fertilisation would lead to the same result. The investigations of Mr. Darwin and others have brought to light the fact that cross-fertilisation in plants is usually favoured, and self-fertilisation as often rendered difficult or impossible. But the facts adduced in support of either side of the argument are so easily twisted, and so diverse meanings attached to certain terms by different writers, that much time is lost in unprofitable quibbles. Mr. Darwin's choice of the term "natural selection" was unfortunate, and not intended to convey the meaning of selection in its strict sense, because there is no such action, but some of his opponents have exhausted their energies in arguing a point not in dispute. Dr. Gray contends that individuality is not actually reached or maintained in the vegetable kingdom, or, at least, that a plant or tree is no more an individual than is a branching zoophyte or a mass of coral. Of course it depends entirely upon the signification we attach to the term individual, for not "all trees and branches equally demonstrate that they are not individuals, by being divided with impunity and advantage, with no loss of life, but much increase."

**Local Floras.**—Mr. Roper, F.L.S., &c., and President of the Eastbourne Natural History Society, has published his *Flora of Eastbourne*, which is one of the neatest, best arranged, and, so far as it goes, most accurate books of the class we have seen; but comparisons with the surrounding parts of the county would have been of more service than with the neighbouring counties. The district coincides with the Cuckmere drainage district of Mr. Hemsley's projected *Flora of*

*Sussex*, but the author includes only those species actually seen by himself, and consequently a considerable number of species reported on good authority as growing within the limits of the district are omitted. Common plants, such as *Papaver dubium*, *Arenaria trinervis*, *Rubus discolor*, *Campanula rotundifolia*, *Lamium incisum*, *Ophrys muscifera*, *Juncus squarrosus*, and *Festuca gigantea*, &c., which we have noted in the district, are among the number. However, we think the principle a good one, and far preferable to what may be termed historical compilation. The flora of the Cuckmere includes *Sibthorpia europaea*, *Bartsia viscosa*, *Phyteuma spicatum*, and *Seseli Libanotis*; and Mr. Roper has recently discovered *Pyrola minor*, which had not previously been recorded from the county.

From the Lewes and East Sussex Natural History Society we have received a circular announcing a projected Fauna and Flora of East Sussex, and soliciting the cooperation of all who are able to assist in any way towards such a publication. The circular gives the boundaries of the districts, as proposed by Mr. Hemsley, and the assistant secretary, Mr. J. H. A. Jenner, of Lewes, will be glad to forward it to any applicant.

## FINE ART.

*Ceramic Art in Remote Ages, with Essays on the Symbols of the Circle, the Cross and Circle, the Circle and Ray Ornament, the Fylfot, and the Serpent.* By J. B. Waring. (London: J. B. Day, 1875.)

THIS volume, by the late Mr. Waring, forms a sequel to his *Stone Monuments, Tumuli, and Ornament of Remote Ages*, and has for subject the primitive earthenware of the European races, from the characteristics of which he draws some important conclusions as to the early relations between all the great families of the world. Assuming that Egypt is the primeval source from which the arts and civilisation of succeeding peoples were to a greater or less extent derived (according to nearness of locality or frequency of intercourse), he traces from thence the original type of the potter's art, modified among the Assyrians and Greeks, and by them communicated to the Germans. Primitive forms of Germanic pottery may be recognised in the Greek ware of the eighth century before the Christian era, and in the early Latin and Alban ware supposed to be of a contemporary period. The necessary inference to be drawn from which is, that there must have been a much greater intercourse between the North and the South, between Archaic Greece, Archaic Italy, and Cisalpine Europe than we have been in the habit of supposing. Of this, written history gives us few records; as has been observed, "we must seek in the interments of the dead a knowledge of the living." Earthenware helps to throw most light upon the nations who made it.

One circumstance at once strikes the student of the pottery of the tombs. We find on it no representation of any object, animate or inanimate. To what attribute this omission?

"There is no reason whatever to conclude," says Mr. Waring, "that this absence of representation of natural objects arose from any inability to reproduce them, for we know by ocular evidence, that the inhabitants of Europe, even in the dark, distant, and mysterious 'stone age,' could fashion bone and horn into imitations of animate and inanimate objects, both by carving

and engraving; and to suppose their after-comers inferior to them in this respect is not tenable; we may justly come to the conclusion that they purposely omitted the representation of such objects, and this idea is strengthened by the fact, that whilst ornament more or less elaborate does occur, it is always of a conventional character, not founded on natural models; and, moreover, one especial form does occur so frequently, and so similar in every case, both in aspect and as to its position, that we are justifiably led to conclude it had in every case one and the same meaning; the ornamental figure to which we allude is that of the circle, or the cross and circle, which, as we shall be able to prove, are emblems of a particular religious creed."

This religion, Mr. Waring goes on to say, is the sun and nature worship, a worship universal among nations the most remote, from the torrid to the frigid zone, under one modification or another.

To those who do not follow Mr. Waring in his theory that these circles, simple and concentric, and these crosses within the circle, are emblems of the religion of the deceased tenant of the urn, they would appear rather as the rude attempts at ornament by the lines most simple to execute, which the untutored artist would make, and their universal adoption among different nations only goes to prove that all races, under similar conditions, will express themselves in like fashion.

Following out his theory of solar worship, Mr. Waring goes through all the various symbols connected with it which he finds on the pottery. After the circle, simple and concentric, comes the cross in all its modifications, the tau, emblematic of St. Anthony, the "mark" to be placed on the forehead of the elect, in Ezekiel, and on the worshippers of the Persian Mithra, a mark among the Greeks on the culprits reprieved from death, and affixed in the roll call of the Roman legions against the names of the living. Next follows the crux ansata of Egypt, symbol of divine and eternal life. The mystic fylfot, four-footed cross or gamma-dion, first seen on the pottery of Archaic Greece and Italy (B.C. 700-500); in the East the symbol of Buddha, under the name of Swastica; a Christian symbol in the catacombs of Rome, and a Pagan on the Runes of Scandinavia and Germany; in England (even to the bells of our parish churches) of universal occurrence. These, with the serpent and other signs, are treated successively, and illustrated by fifty-four plates, in which the pottery bearing the same marks, of every age and nation, is brought together, showing the universal prevalence of similar signs and symbols, and thus pointing to a common origin, giving the student ample opportunity of forming his own speculations concerning them.

The manner in which the work is produced, as regards lithography, typography, and binding, is highly creditable to the publisher.

F. BURY PALLISER.

## FINE ART AND THE CITY OF PARIS.

Paris: Aug. 19, 1875.

In one of my letters some weeks ago I referred to the exhibition held in the Ecole des Beaux-Arts, by the town of Paris, of the pictures ordered from the artists direct in the course of the past year and those bought at the last Salon. I com

mented sadly on the feebleness, with rare exceptions, of the orders. I expressed my surprise at these orders being restricted, save in a few instances, to religious subjects. People may have thought that the terror generally inspired in France by Clericalism had led me to exaggerate. But it was by no means so, and I am anxious to prove it by the official figures of a report that has recently been laid before the Municipal Council by M. Viollet le Duc, the conclusions of which have been adopted after a short debate, in which the Prefect of the Seine failed to raise any fundamental objections. This episode is important: most important for us because M. Viollet le Duc's report throws a strong light on abuses that are all the more formidable and difficult to get rid of because their root lies in the bureaux of the Administration, and because the *personnel* of these bureaux does not change. Important also, because M. Viollet le Duc is an eminent artist, whose books prove how deeply he has studied the links that connect architecture with every moment of a people's life—civil, religious, and military; because his knowledge of the past has given him the key to the present; and because, having always kept aloof from academical intrigues, he is now in the position to unveil many mysteries. He is emphatically what the artists call a "général." Some extracts from his report, which bear on questions of international interest, will enable the English public to appreciate the wisdom of the Parisian electors in entrusting the defence of their city to such an active practical man—such a philosopher, moreover, as M. Viollet le Duc. I have often in these columns declared it to be a subject for regret that the part now played by artists is so impersonal, and has so little connexion with the general interests attending the progress of civilisation. The above episode is the best explanation that can be given in support of this doctrine. An artist is neither asked to proclaim his convictions aloud in the market-place, nor to bury himself in the choice and elaboration of political subjects. But we shall see that he may be asked to bring the help of his experience and of his views to bear on questions which involve the very vitality of art. To you, this is nothing new, because your Parliamentary régime has taught you the use of great enquiries. It is new to us, as new and as fertile of result as are the labours of the commission of enquiry into the works of the Sèvres manufactory which I have spoken of more than once.

M. Viollet le Duc had already caused a new plan to be adopted some weeks ago for the reconstruction of the Hôtel de Ville entrusted to M. Ballue. All that was left of the old façade, the work of the architect Boccadero, will have to come down. It was hoped that this might have been preserved. The greatest reproach which was brought, when the *concours* for the rebuilding took place, against M. Magne, one of the competitors whose design was admirable from the decorative point of view, was that he intended to pull the whole thing down in order to rebuild it on a kind of pedestal of ten steps. Intrigue carried the day. The jury did not like to offend the Institute, several of the competitors being members, by not conferring the honour and the profits of the work on them. And we see now how much time was consequently wasted, how many plans were uselessly made.

Wishing to leave the political side of the question, whatever it may be, untouched, I shall not recall the figures which prove the large proportion of funds granted to religious buildings to the prejudice of the civil. This is not injustice merely; it is bad policy. As a body, the churchgoers are excessively rich. If the care of decorating their naves and chapels were more exclusively left to them their pride would not suffer them to neglect it and the town-budget would thereby be relieved.

"Were these orders," says M. Viollet le Duc, "likely to exert a good influence on the progress and develop-

ment of art, we should not have a word to say. Great masters have produced, and may yet produce excellent works, from the aesthetic point of view, independently of the choice of the subject and the place their works are to occupy; but it must be admitted that, in the nature of things, the religious subjects so often and so admirably treated by these masters are not such as to call forth in these days anything but reminiscences of a more or less commonplace character, and are incapable of awakening any new and fruitful ideas in the mind of an artist."

This is a serious argument, but, nevertheless, artists may always bring forward counter-arguments, in principle, from their faith, which may be very strong, and, in practice, from their talent, which makes endless varieties of plastic combinations, according to the degree of originality and knowledge they possess. It is, therefore, possible that masters may yet find some new formulas for religious art.

Here is a far more solid argument:—

"It must also be admitted that our churches are not, generally speaking, adapted for painting. The pictures, badly lighted, hang on walls whence the light is refracted so as to produce just the contrary effect to that desired, and can with difficulty be seen by a few amateurs or friends of the artists, who make frantic endeavours to discover the right point of view, if there be any. Soon they are covered with dust, mouldy from damp, the colours fade, and they present an unintelligible appearance to the eye of the spectator."

This rigorously defines the distinction between figure-painting and strictly decorative painting, a distinction regarded as so important in the great ages of the past and so ignored in these days.

If logic reigned supreme, strictly decorative painting, consisting, that is to say, like Oriental art, of learned and varied, powerful and pleasing combinations of lines and colours, would manifestly be employed to cover most flat surfaces with its thousands of designs borrowed from vegetable or imaginary nature. All difficulties, such as the right point of view and accidents of light, would then cease to exist as obstacles to be overcome. The eye, on the contrary, would find pleasure in such breaks, as it does in the varieties of perspective seen under the forest vault.

But such a system leaves too much to the architect, who would logically have to be the great master of all decorative art, and too little to that class of hungry mediocre artists who have grown to be a power in the State. Because they have learned to copy the torso and the limbs of a model, at three francs an hour, with tolerable correctness, they pretend that they are in a condition to evoke mythical and heroic figures on canvas. Any old model with a white beard, and a large book resting on his knees, is a St. Jerome, any street urchin, divested of clothing, with a cross of reed in his hand, a St. John the Baptist. The etiquette is of such a hackneyed kind, that for the most part the article is saved thereby. The public does not look, the critic shrugs his shoulders. But the artist goes and knocks at the door of the Ministry. He invokes *la grande peinture! le grand art! les grandes traditions!* which are all disregarded in his person, despised in his picture, and on the point of perishing with his school. The Minister is afraid that somewhere or other it might be recorded in print, that the death of "*le grand art*" and "*les traditions*" took place when he was in office. He buys. He gives commissions. And thus it is that funds are expended on works devoid alike of power, beauty, and conviction, and useless both to the country and humanity at large; works that are vehicles of bad teaching to the crowd, on account of the weak drawing, the pale colouring, and the want of conception, that make them mistrustful of loyal and generous attempts and satisfied with things learnt by rote. And the orders complete the work of demoralisation by degrading the artist's character and converting that touching and poetical exaltation which is called Art, and which is the gift of the choice spirits that

dwelt in higher regions, into a trade that imperatively demands to be subsidised by the State.

But let us return to the report of M. Viollet le Duc, whose profound study of our Middle Ages has made him acquainted with all the resources which the lay mind drew from the representation of secular subjects.

"Why," says he, "not employ the artists in decorating the walls of all our new *mairies*, and of our schools, even pointing out to them fitting subjects to elevate the mind, episodes of our civil history, or examples easy of comprehension of facts which would leave a lasting and healthy impression on the mind?"

"In our schools our best artists would be glad to draw friezes, if they were even simple outlines only, which should bring domestic scenes, fables, and moralities continually before the children's eyes, and leave a lasting impression on their minds both of the examples they inculcate and of taste. Why not also at once begin to provide a series of paintings and statues for the Hôtel de Ville—the municipal palace?"

The great architect-writer might further have added, that if the subjects of these works were set for competition the whole school would be aroused to activity of mind, a quality in which they are at present completely deficient, and the absence of which makes the last Salons so tedious and wearisome.

The ignorance and indolence of mind of artists whose technical talent is undeniable, is displayed in the new Opera-house, where we see how little they care to give any new shape to the old mythological subjects that make the very children laugh.

After the reading of this report, the Prefect of the Seine having insisted that "there is no wider field open to the imagination than religious painting," M. Viollet le Duc rejoined with animation that "the Italian painters, those of the school of Siena amongst others, had drawn their finest inspirations from civil life." He might have added that the same could be said, with even more truth, of the Flemish and Dutch, who can yet neither of them be called an irreligious people.

A *concours* for the creation of a new type of postage-stamp is being held at the Ministère des Finances. The words "*Poste*" and "*République Française*" are to figure in its composition. It may include several allegorical personages or several heads. Does that mean that the Republic is to be as gentle as a sheep with two heads? They could not have had the "hydra of anarchy" in view, however, for the instructions go on to say, "These figures, or heads, may be personifications of France, of Commerce, of Industry, of Agriculture, of Law, of Justice, of the Arts, &c., but are to have no political character."

I here mention, for the information of those whom it may concern, that the establishment called "*La Monnaie*" has the richest collection of postage-stamps known in any country.

M. Champfleury, the well-known humorous writer, who has been superintendent of the ceramic collections at the national manufactory of Sèvres since September 4, has just addressed to the Minister of the Beaux-Arts the report of a mission the object of which was to visit some ancient centres of manufacture.

M. Champfleury, in the course of various journeys, inspected the numerous collections of faïence and porcelain made in the last twenty years by the municipal administrations and by private individuals.

After noting the first violent symptoms of the mania, which began to show itself towards 1850, for the productions of our ancient manufactories of Nevers, Rouen, Marseilles, Strasbourg, &c., so long and unjustly despised, he speaks of the monographs and exhibitions which the movement provoked both in France and elsewhere.

A taste for modern things next began to show itself; that is to say, the new manufacturers set themselves to try and win the favour of the public by new and more perfect productions. M. Champfleury does full justice to the large share England, and especially Minton, had in the *renais-*



sance of an art which is applicable to the finest decorations and also to the most familiar circumstances of life. "Curiosity, which appears useless for a certain length of time, nevertheless gives industry a new direction, a new current of ideas, and demands great progress of those establishments which enjoy State patronage, that the benefit of it may descend on industrial art."

Finally, he announces that a large work is being prepared for the press, which will be as complete a history as possible of all the works hitherto published on the ceramic arts.

The artist, the workman, the critic, the amateur, are all in their various ways interested in this publication. It will be much more complete than the work already published under the superintendence of the South Kensington Museum, as it is special and edited by the librarian of the Sévres Museum. I shall keep you informed as to the time of its publication. Perhaps the present notice will induce amateurs or publishers of isolated or little-known treatises on these subjects to put themselves at once in direct communication with M. Champfleury. PH. BURTY.

#### BRITISH ARCHAEOLOGISTS AT EVESHAM.

THE Association has this year enjoyed exceptionally fine weather throughout its Congress week, and has been happy in its choice of a district as full of natural beauty as of sites of historic interest. Lord Hertford proved his fitness for the post of President, not merely by an inaugural address which displayed a genuine love for antiquity, but also by a spirit of courtesy and consideration, the influence of which was visible in all the arrangements made by the local committee.

Evesham was the headquarters of the association, and, after the proceedings had been formally opened, provided sufficient occupation for the remainder of the first day, Monday, August 16. The battle-field was viewed where Simon de Montfort fell six centuries ago in defence of the people's rights, yielding up his great soul with the words "It is God's grace," and sealing with his blood the charter of the English Constitution. An obelisk marks the spot, inscribed with some prosaic lines from Drayton's *Polyolbion* which we need not quote, and the Battle Well, now an open pool in the midst of a field, still retains its ancient designation. A visit was next paid to the beautiful Bell Tower, sole relic of Eagwin's glorious abbey, and to the twin churches, All Saints and St. Lawrence, which stand side by side in the same churchyard. The former is undergoing restoration, and if we could be sure that the process would be applied with equal judgment to the Bell Tower, the work would have our best wishes. Evesham is justly proud of the latter, which is indeed her great architectural ornament, and we are glad to know that the result of Messrs. Blashill and Brock's careful examination of the building was to confirm the popular tradition that it was erected by Abbot Lichfield shortly before the Dissolution of Monasteries.

The following day was devoted to Stratford-on-Avon, the one spot in England where hero-worship actually flourishes. The archives of the town, including the Chamberlain's accounts, in which there are several entries relating to the players, were duly inspected, and the party then visited in succession the house where Shakspeare is thought to have been born (with its multifarious collection of memorials of the poet); the site of New Place, where he spent the last and least busy years of his active life; the Chapel of the Holy Cross, rebuilt by Sir Hugh Clopton, and possibly for awhile a school in which the poet received his first education; and the Parish Church, almost an epitome of English architecture, and rich in undoubted records of the one name which has made Stratford famous. Whatever Shakspearean associations belong to

Clopton House (where the rest of the day was pleasantly spent) are of an opposite character, and we can but wonder that the papers alleged to have been discovered there by Ireland should have imposed upon the public so successfully. The oldest portion of the house is said to have been built by the famous Lord Mayor, Sir Hugh Clopton, in the reign of Henry VII., but there are no certain indications of any work earlier than that of Elizabeth. The collection of pictures is interesting, and the portraits of Arabella Stuart and General Ireton are of conspicuous merit.

An excursion was made on Wednesday to two villages—Buckland and Broadway—lying at the foot of the Cotswolds, and presenting many features of archaeological value. There is at Buckland a group of buildings consisting of the parish church, the Grange, and the rectory house, on which neither the tooth of time nor the more ruthless hand of the restorer have as yet left their mark. The church, chiefly of late Decorated and Perpendicular work, seems to have been remodelled at the close of the fifteenth century, and must then have presented internally a very gorgeous appearance. The chromatic decoration of the roof, the frescoes beneath the whitewash of the walls, the tile pavement, and the rich stained glass in the east window still remain; and scarcely less worth notice are the carved pew ends and the oak wainscoting of somewhat later date. An unrestored church is rapidly becoming a rarity, but a mediæval parsonage is probably almost unique. In that at Buckland the lofty hall, with open timber and roof and windows glazed, as the rebus testifies, by Grafton, first Rector of the parish, are in much the same condition as when the house was built at the end of the fifteenth century.

Similar instances of happy "survival" are to be found in Broadway, the most conspicuous ornaments of which are the Grange of Pershore Abbey, a building of the fourteenth century now tenanted by labourers, and the Lygon Arms, a handsome Jacobean mansion, in which the archaeologists met with far more sumptuous entertainment from its present owner, Mr. Halliwell Philipps, than Charles I. could have received when he halted there during Waller's pursuit of the Royal army. The old church of Broadway contains little that is remarkable besides a brass of late date and a mutilated effigy of the thirteenth or fourteenth century. The Association was not fortunate in its selection of an exponent of the antiquities of Buckland and Broadway, and Mr. Halliwell Philipps' paper was little more than a statement of the sources from whence information could be, but had not been, obtained, and a suggestion, *more suo*, that Shakspeare had visited the district and witnessed the far-famed Cotswold games.

The programme of Thursday was a long and varied one, embracing visits to Toddington Park, the natural beauties of which alone in some degree for the wretched taste in which the house is built; Stanway Court, a Tudor mansion with a charming gateway designed by Inigo Jones, and Hayles Abbey, where a few broken but elegant arches alone mark the site of what was once the haunt of countless pilgrims and the burial-place of more than one Royal prince. Mr. Loftus Brock, in a paper of great research, detailed the history of the abbey and of the Holy Blood with which Edmund, Earl of Cornwall, enriched its reliquary five centuries ago.

But, perhaps, a larger degree of popular interest attaches to Sudeley Castle, the next halting-place of the excursionists. Built, as Leland says, *ex spoliis Gallorum* by Thomas Boteler, Lord Sudeley, in the reign of Henry VI., it was seized upon by Edward IV. and granted by the Crown to a succession of Royal favourites. Edward VI. gave it to his uncle, Thomas Seymour, fourth husband of Katharine Parr, who died within its walls and lies buried beneath an exquisite monument which Mr. Dent, the second founder of the castle, has

erected within the restored chapel. After having been held for a brief period by William Parr, Marquis of Northampton, it was granted in 1553 to Sir J. Brydges, created Baron Chandos of Sudeley, and continued for a century with his descendants. But, taken and retaken in the Civil Wars, it fell into a state of ruin, from which it was only rescued by the Messrs. Dent, who purchased it in 1837. By them the whole of the first quadrangle, Elizabethan in character, was restored, and the progress of decay in other parts arrested. It is still a noble pile, and much judgment has been shown, not only in the work of restoration, but also in leaving untouched the walls of the banqueting-hall, within which the Association was hospitably entertained. The day was far spent when the party reached Winchcomb, and scarcely as much attention as it deserved was paid Mr. Brock's paper upon the Abbey of St. Kenelm. On Friday the members of the Congress were conveyed, partly by river and partly by road, to Pershore Abbey, halting for a few minutes at the little Norman church of Wyre. The history of Pershore goes back to the seventh century, when a college of secular canons was founded there, which gave place to a nunnery, and that in turn to a Benedictine monastery established in the year 972. The last foundation acquired great wealth, and its abbots had a seat in Parliament, but the whole of the abbatial buildings have been destroyed, and of the appendant church only the choir and aisles and the south transept have survived the havoc done at the Dissolution. These remains present many features of great beauty, and have been judiciously treated by Sir G. Scott in his recent restoration. The lofty clerestory, in which the trifolium is merged, the Norman arcading in the south transept, and the well-proportioned lantern-tower called forth general admiration, which, however, was not accorded to the decoration of the west wall. From Pershore the route lay through a fertile and richly-cultivated country to Tewkesbury, where the abbey, now undergoing partial restoration at the hands of Sir G. Scott, was carefully examined. It is no exaggeration to say that it is entitled to one of the highest places among the ecclesiastical edifices of England. The Norman arch, of unusual depth and height, which terminates its western end, the lofty, circular pillars of the nave, the multangular chapels of varied form and exquisite design which surround the choir are features almost without parallel in any of our cathedrals. Mr. Thomas Blashill detailed the history of the abbey, and described the buildings, drawing attention to several points of construction which have hitherto been misunderstood. It is impossible to do justice to his theory in the space at our command, nor, indeed, could it be clearly understood except when explained *in situ*. The curious Saxon church of Deerhurst and that at Bredon, with its rich Norman doorways and interesting specimens of monumental art, were examined, and thus a day full of enjoyment to the antiquarian and ecclesiologist came too quickly to an end. Saturday was devoted to less important subjects. Coughton Court, an old seat of the Throckmortons, was first visited, but in the absence of a *cicerone* many of its interesting features were overlooked. The entrance gateway is a good specimen of Tudor architecture, and the timbered gables of the two remaining sides of the original quadrangle are not without character. Within there is a wealth of old oak, a series of family portraits, and almost a history in armorial blazonry. The time allowed for the examination of the church was too brief. We could but glance at a few of the beautiful monuments which it contains, and then reluctantly suffer ourselves to be conveyed to Alcester, where there is very little to call for remark. The monument to Sir Fulke Greville, and the cenotaph by Chantrey to the Marquis of Hertford, impart some little interest to the parish church, but neither there nor at Oversley, with its barren tumulus, was there much to gratify the archaeologist. But all feelings of disappointment were speedily effaced by

the hospitable reception given to the Association by its President, the Marquis of Hertford, at Bagley Park. The house, built by Ripley early in the last century, and altered by Wyatt in recent times, is not without dignity, and there still clings to it much of that peculiar sort of grandeur which belonged to the earlier days of the House of Hanover. In situation it can scarcely be surpassed, and the beauty of the surrounding park reflects no little credit upon the skill of "Capability" Brown. After partaking of the President's hospitality and listening to his lordship's apt remarks upon the history of the place and its associations, the Congress was dissolved, with an intimation that its field of operations next year would be within the Duchy of Cornwall.

We cannot close our notice of the meeting without urging upon the Association the need of restricting within reasonable bounds the dimensions of its excursion parties. At present the archaeologists have to give place to a mixed multitude of mere pleasure-seekers, who by their presence obstruct the study of antiquity and confer no compensating benefit upon it. To extend hospitality to some 200 persons, with appetites sharpened by many hours spent in the open air, taxes too severely the good-nature and even the material resources of the owners of historic sites. And, unless some self-denying ordinance be passed, we shall expect to find that the doors of many a mansion, within which the antiquary would be always welcome, will henceforth be closed. For its own sake the Association should take care to make some distinction between an archaeological excursion and an overgrown picnic.

CHARLES J. ROBINSON.

#### MEETING OF THE CAMBRIAN ARCHAEOLOGISTS AT CARMARTHEN.

THE thirtieth annual meeting of the Cambrian Archaeologists last week at Carmarthen has proved the most successful and best attended on record. To say nothing of tried and able representatives of each branch of archaeology, Professor Babington, the Society's *Historiologer*, Mr. Bloxam, the acute and veteran expounder of architecture, monuments and costume, and Professor Westwood, the palaeographer, whose controversies with Mr. John Rhys bid fair to draw the young and old inscription-readers into ultimate accord, a prestige attached to the presidency of Bishop Basil Jones, and the presence of Mr. E. A. Freeman, his joint-editor in the *History of St. David's*, as his effective aide-de-camp. The Bishop's inaugural address sustained this prestige, being pregnant with hints and suggestions for a greater future of the Society, and demonstrating lucidly the great work which the archaeologists might yet achieve by concentrated effort. Full of hope the members waited for the morrow, which was to begin the campaign, and it was some proof of the quickened zeal resulting from the Bishop's words overnight, that the drenching morrow, which was occupied in a drive under testudines of umbrellas in open "breaks," did not send them home at night sick and disgusted. Little, indeed, would the rain allow to be seen of Llanstephan Castle, a castle on a headland overlooking Ferryside and Carmarthen Bay, the records of which are scant and problematical, and the architectural criterion as to date consisting of a storeyed tower, which exhibited the domestic architecture of the fourteenth century. From its scanty annals, however, had grown an accretion, as was discovered at the evening meeting, of un-critical myth and romance, which afforded Mr. Freeman a text for a salutary discourse on the need of a critical history of Wales, such as we have of England, of Greece, and of other nations. Llanstephan Church was chiefly remarkable for its South Wallian embattled tower, and the rudeness of the arches, which were pierless and local in character. After hospitable entertainment

at Plas by Sir James Hamilton, a cromlech with its capstone clean gone was visited and measured at Llwyndu, and what was called a Roman altar, though really a much later stone, of which the pediment was in another part of the grounds, surveyed at Ystrad. Finer cromlechs turned up in the later excursions, that on Thursday leading to the immense earthwork at Clawdd-Mawr, nearer to Conwil than which was a cromlech, in good preservation, said to have been one of five of which tokens and traces remained, as well as of a cairn of considerable dimensions, and an early British camp at a great distance. On Thursday, however, the finest cromlech of all was visited at Dolwylwm, the capstone being of gigantic size, and the side-slabs that support it of the usual type. We demur, however, to the statement that it can compare with Pentre-Evan cromlech near Newport, in Pembrokeshire, a finer and grander, as well as more graceful and taller specimen, though it may not be so literally *megalithic*. As the Association was on this occasion accompanied (for the first time) by Mr. Worthington Smith, the wood-engraver, as its artist, it is unnecessary that we should dilate on the size and measurements of the Dolwylwm cromlech, which had the advantage of having been little hitherto known, and so proportionately marvelled over. In the course of the week a number of inscribed stones were more keenly and carefully inspected than hitherto, the rude writing on them being fought over, in a friendly though free spirit, by Professor Westwood and Mr. Rhys, with their wives and followers. The results of the rubbings of these, and of the parallel representation by Mr. Smith's camera, promise to be very interesting, and it is to be hoped that while Professor Westwood is completing his subscription-list preparatory to publishing his record of Welsh Inscriptions, his scholarly and lively rival (who was in his way as much the Rupert of the meeting as the local secretary with that praenomen was in another) will communicate to the Cambrian or other journals his mature reading of the inscriptions inspected. That on St. Canna's chair seems a forgery as to its latter end. The stones at Trawsmawr visited on Wednesday present the pretty well-known inscription, "*Severini fili severi*," who we think we may undertake to say was not (as a local paper hath it) *a Roman general killed in this part of the country, and buried at Neuchurch*, and one or two others more dubious and undecipherable, through the forms of N and V being as yet not quite clearly distinguished. Near the farmhouse of Parkan—where the Association met with just the sort of extemporised lunch which we should like to see take the place of grander but more formal and distracting hospitalities, and which would refresh the real archaeologist without clogging his progress by the multitude of feast-hunting camp-followers—there is an erect inscribed stone till recently held to bear the legend "*C. MENVEDAN—FILI BAR CUN—*." It was settled, on close inspection, that for "*C. MEN*" we should read "*QVEN*." The emendation, or new reading, has no unimportant bearing upon the general subject and date of these inscriptions. Perhaps the most perfect day's work and pleasure in the week was that of Friday, when the programme consisted of an excursion to Kidwelly in the morning and a conversazione at Abergwili Palace in the evening. Kidwelly was reached by railway, and the ancient and primitive houses (there ought to be a law against restoring or replacing them with modern brick-and-mortar work) were noticed *en route* to the church and castle, both of which well repaid a visit. The church has a fine striking tower, described by Mr. Freeman as a cross between the local towers of the district, and the Northamptonshire type of superincumbent spire which some travelled native builder may have brought back: its position at the middle of the nave is also singular. The span of the nave is unusually large, viz., thirty-three feet in the clear, and the church, which is nearly cruciform, is judged to have extended much

further towards the west. It has a fine carved piscina and some mutilated effigies, on which Mr. Bloxam discoursed with his usual charm of description. Neither he, nor Mr. Freeman, however, got scent, we fear, of the effigy in alabaster of the "*Virgin and Child*," which used to stand in a niche over the doorway, but which, in dread of idolatry, an iconoclastic vicar is said to have removed and buried during the last ten years. According to our information, they were exhumed specially for the Cambrian visit, and will no doubt again be "*quietly inurned*." It is not far hence to the castle, which at its north end has two outworks with a mound and ditch each. The grand gate-house opens on the site of a ditch-defended barbacan, and the space within the walls consists of a narrow court or outer bailey, and of the range of domestic buildings, in which may be traced the chapel, hall, and solar with the kitchen and purtenances. The chapel is of exceeding beauty, and the projecting tower internally occupied by its polygonal apse is very noteworthy, as seen on the outside. It has a vestry or priest's room attached to it, and very graceful windows. After Kidwelly there was little to be said of Old Dynefawr Castle visited later in the day, and in like manner Llandilo Church showed poorly beside or after that of Kidwelly. A section of the party visited Llangharne and the Coygan bone-caves in preference: but your correspondent could not regret the visit to the deer-browed slopes of Dynefawr Park, as it afforded the finest view of the Vale of Towy from the Keep Tower, and an outlook upon diverse scenes of historic and poetic association. Carmarthen itself is not much to see. It is greater in its hospitalities than its archaeological conservatism, as may be inferred from its castle having been bedevilled into a gaol, after the manner of Haverford West. It cherishes, however, its monument of Sir Rhys ap Tudor in St. Peter's Church; it has some Roman remains, as well as the remnants of a priory and a Grey Friars Monastery; and, with an impetus given on this occasion to its pride in its old memorials by the praises of its extempore museum, and by the example of its archaeological bishop, it is to be hoped that it will keep strict watch upon all the destructive Cromwells and Davy Davies, and in increasing measure signalise its sympathy with the objects of the recent meeting. It is in our power to announce that Mr. E. A. Freeman has accepted the Presidency of the Association for 1876. The annual meeting will be at Abergavenny.

JAMES DAVIES.

#### THE HOOTON HALL SALE.

ON the 12th inst., Messrs. Christie, Manson and Woods completed the ten days' sale of the contents of Hooton Hall, the property of Mr. Naylor. The collection was extensive, the catalogue numbering above 1,600 lots. They were not brought up to London, as in the case of Manley Hall, but sold at the mansion itself, which is situated midway between Chester and Liverpool, about eight miles from each. Almost every form of art was represented in this collection, which has been made from many celebrated ones dispersed within the last twenty years. The following are some of the prices at which the objects were sold. A silver pomander box, beautifully chased, of old Italian work, from Strawberry Hill, 16*l.* 5*s.* An astronomical dial, engraved and enamelled with figures of the planets, by Volekhamer and Tycho Brahe, made for the Emperor Rudolph II., 20*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.*; a bowl of dark green jade, carved with foliage, 36*l.* 15*s.*; a boxwood carving, attributed to Michel Angelo, representing St. Michael expelling the Fallen Angels, a group of eleven figures, 21*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.*; a very fine large cameo, with head of Jupiter Serapis, in onyx, from the Northwick Collection, 28*l.* 2*s.*, and a double cameo, a sardonyx, with the head of Alexander on one side, and that of Darius on the



other, finely set in Cinquecento frame, with lapis lazuli pedestal, from Lord Crowe's collection, 42*l*. Of the Capo di Monte porcelain were a remarkably fine set of four candlesticks, representing the Seasons, on scroll-shaped plinths, 84*l*.; a small statuette of the Farnese Hercules, six inches high, 14*l*. 3*s*. 6*d*.; and a cup and saucer, with Phoebus and Aurora, and other figures, in coloured relief, 9*l*. 9*s*.; a Battersea enamel casket, beautifully painted with landscapes, figures, and cattle, on rose-du-Barry ground, 123*l*. 18*s*. Most of the Sèvres specimens had been derived from well-known cabinets. A pair of square-shaped white pedestals, painted with musical emblems and trophies, from Stowe, only 5*l*. 5*s*.; a plate of turquoise blue, with a border of medallion heads in grisaille, one of the well-known service executed for the Empress Catherine II., 58*l*. 16*s*.; a small plate with the initials of Marie Antoinette, from the Trianon, 14*l*. 14*s*. The most important lot among the china was the exceptionally fine Chelsea vase bought by Mr. Naylor in 1859 at the sale of Mr. Ellis Ellis's collection. This splendid specimen, of unusual importance and beauty, has an openwork neck and cover, and is exquisitely painted with large Chinese figures on a gold ground. It was knocked down for 1,417*l*. to Mr. Lane, of London, who was supposed to be acting for the Earl of Dudley; an oval Palissy dish, with reptiles, fish and foliage, sold for 42*l*. The statuery was the principal feature in the fifth day's sale, beginning by some fine examples in terra-cotta of Clodion. A spirited group of two infant mermen supporting a medallion head of Amphitrite, and its companion with the head of Neptune, both from the Earl of Kilmorey's collection, sold for 477*l*. 13*s*.; a circular table, formed of remnants of marbles, jaspers, &c., contributed by the crowned heads of Europe for the restoration of the basilica of St. Paul's at Rome, the centre subject being the Doves of the Capitol, an interesting specimen of modern mosaic, 136*l*. 10*s*.; marble statue of *Esmeralda and the Goat*, by Rossetti of Rome, with reliefs on the pedestal illustrating the story, 425*l*.; and by the same sculptor, *The Greek Slave*, 147*l*.; B. E. Spence, *Venus and Cupid*, 35*l*.; *Eve Repentant*, name of sculptor not given, 131*l*. The day's sale finished with the famed statue by Gibson of Venus with the Apple—not the tinted statue, but one executed for the late M. Uzzelli and purchased at his sale, apparently the same figure as or a replica of that exhibited in the International Exhibition and decorated with colour by Owen Jones. After a spirited bidding, it was bought for 1,310*l*. by Mr. Lane, the Earl of Dudley being the presumed purchaser. Among the pictures the following prices were attained:—W. C. Dobson, *The Holy Family returning from Nazareth*, 63*l*.; D. Roberts, *The Tombs of the Caliphs at Cairo*, 204*l*. 15*s*.; W. Etty, *The Entombment*, 131*l*.; F. Goodall, *Portrait of Rosa Bonheur sketching Highland Cattle*, 147*l*.; W. Müller, *Dredge Boats on the Medway*, 1,207*l*. 10*s*.; J. C. Hook, *The Widow's Son going to Sea*, 604*l*. 10*s*.; W. P. Frith, *Sir Roger de Coverley in the Saracen's Head*, the finished study for the well-known picture, 210*l*.; C. Stanfield, *View on the Coast near Hastings*, 388*l*. 10*s*.; and, most interesting of all, *The Prison Window* of J. Philip, familiar to all by the engraving; it was put up at 1,000*l*. and purchased by Mr. Lane for 3,110*l*. The pictures realised 13,287*l*. the wines 1,000*l*. This is the last important sale of the season which has seen the dispersion of many celebrated collections.

#### NOTES AND NEWS.

THE private view of the Birmingham Royal Society of Artists took place on Wednesday, and the Exhibition is now open to the public. Messrs. Sant, Pettie, M. Stone, E. Long, and Frith are among the contributors to the Exhibition.

M. CHARLES BIGOT, of the *Sicile*, contends in a recent number of the *Revue Politique et Littéraire*

that the modern school of sculpture in France has this year produced works more remarkable than any produced in the sister art of painting.

M. BURNOUR, Director of the French School in Athens, in presenting to the French Academy some antiquities found in the island of Santorin (Therasia) says that he accepts for these antiquities the date which geologists have assigned to the volcanic eruption under the lava of which they were found buried: viz., the eighteenth or twentieth century, B.C. It is certainly remarkable, as he states, that on an Egyptian monument of the eighteenth century are to be seen sculptured vases identical in shape with some of those from Santorin, and further that these vases on the Egyptian monument are in the hands of inhabitants of the isles of Ouat-Oer. This, however, only proves that a certain shape of vase had been used in the Greek islands at that date; and since nothing was less variable than the shape of vases, it would still remain possible for those from Santorin to be much later. Geologists are not quite agreed about defining the time of the eruption.

In the *Revue Archéologique* (June, 1875, pl. 14) is given a beautiful Athenian bas-relief, with explanatory text by M. Félix Ravaisson, who finds in it an illustration of his favourite theory that on sepulchral monuments of this kind the Greeks represented with rare exceptions only scenes from life in Elysium. The subject here consists of a youth of fine athletic form, standing to the front with legs crossed and leaning against a short square pillar, which may indicate his own tomb. He looks as if out of the relief away into the distance with an expression as if gazing back to scenes which he had just left. At his feet are a dog and a small naked boy sitting with head sunk on his knees. On the right stands an old man looking earnestly at him, but failing apparently to attract his attention. The dog according to M. Ravaisson indicates that the deceased youth would continue in the next world the pursuits he had left in this. The boy is his slave. But if so, why should the slave be the person who expresses the greatest amount of grief, as he here obviously does? If the scene is in Elysium it must represent a meeting between father and son, or at any rate between a youth and an old man. But this is no meeting. On the contrary, the attitudes of the old man, of the boy, and of the dog show that the youth is beyond taking notice of them. The subject would perhaps be better explained as an artistic rendering of the death of a youth by a Greek sculptor, who could not, and dared not, introduce the realism of such a scene—a rendering of the moment when the youth had ceased to recognise what he had been most familiar with. The sculpture itself appears to be of the fourth century B.C., the proportions of the youth being those which came in with the school of Lysippus, and no doubt in time found their way also to Athens. This bas-relief was found last year in the bed of the Ilissus.

*Polybiblion* announces the discovery of a picture of Joan of Arc in the possession of M. Auvray, a well-known expert and dealer, which bears the name of its illustrious subject. One of the scholars who have examined the portrait suggests that it may be the work of the Scotch painter Power, who painted the Standard of the Maid of Orleans. It seems to be an *ex-voto* to commemorate the deliverance of Orleans; from a coat-of-arms which appears in it, and which was only granted her by Charles VII. on June 22, 1429, the date of the picture is fixed as not earlier than that year.

THE restorations of the cathedral at Ratisbon are now completed, and, by the removal of all the surrounding houses and sheds which formerly disfigured it, this noble building may now be seen in all its perfection.

It is reported from Rome that the plaster casts from Michel Angelo's sculptured works, prepared by the Italian department of Public Instruction

as a present to the city of Florence on the occasion of the memorial festival in honour of Michel Angelo, are already finished. They consist of the statues of Moses and Elias, and of Rachel in the church of San Pietro in Vincoli, of that of the Christ in the Minerva, of the Saviour in St. Paul's Without-the-Walls, and of the *Pietà* in St. Peter's.

SOME interesting particulars respecting the distinguished Veronese sculptor, Salesio Pegrassi, are given in the current number of *Il Raffaello*. Pegrassi, although little known in England, is one of the most admired sculptors of ornament in all Italy. He is especially celebrated for his carvings of natural objects, plants, fruits, fish, and animals of every description, which he executes with the greatest skill and fidelity to nature. So lifelike, indeed, are his modellings that Sir William Banks, who was one of his early patrons, once wrote to him, "I expected much, but never nature in stone." Pegrassi was born in 1812 of very humble parents, and spent his early years in the greatest poverty and ignorance. He showed from childhood, however, a sort of instinctive love for art, and used to try and draw all he saw in the churches. He taught himself also in a very short space of time to read and write, as well as to draw, and learnt to carve in stone and wood in the workshop of a certain Righetti, a wood-carver. When he was eighteen years of age the Italian painter, Giovanni Cagliari, took notice of him, and would have made him a painter, but Salesio would not relinquish the chisel for the brush, and entered the workshop of the sculptor Montresor, where he soon made himself a name by his exquisite carvings of leaves, garlands of fruit, &c. His son Angelo, who is also a good sculptor, now assists him in his work. A series of thirty-six excellent photographs have lately been published in Italy from his ornamental sculptures and carved works.

AN exhibition of the works of Tassaert, the French artist who committed suicide last year at Montrouge, will be held in the Salle Melpomène at the Ecole des Beaux Arts in September.

ABOUT 100 sketches by the talented young French artist Henri Regnault, who was killed in the late war, have been presented to the Louvre by his father. The most important of them will be exhibited before long at the Luxembourg.

TWENTY-SIX designs have been sent in for the proposed statue of Sumner which is to be erected at Boston. Among the competitors are Miss Hosmer, Millmore, Ball, and several other well-known sculptors.

THE *Gazette des Beaux Arts* opens this month with a first article by M. Henri Lavoix on Mohammedan art, dealing more especially with the employment of figures by the Mussulman artist. It is generally thought that the followers of the prophet are forbidden in the Koran to make for themselves any graven image, or likeness of God, man, or beast, but the Arabic word *ansab*, translated statues, merely applies to certain sacred stones used as altars, and on which oil was poured in sacrifice. It is only in the commentaries on the sacred volume that painters are assigned to perdition if they venture to represent any animate objects. In spite, however, of this prohibition and the fearful consequences of disobedience there were many artists at different periods among the Mussulmans who painted the human form, and at last, custom becoming stronger than religious prohibition, figures were everywhere employed even upon the Arab money, on which portrait heads of the caliphs were often represented. Animals also were often depicted in Moresque decoration. 2. The beautiful portrait of a young man, assigned to Raphael, in the Musée Montpellier, is criticised by M. Gonse, and finely engraved for the first time by A. Didier. M. Gonse thinks it is certainly not by Raphael, but probably by Francia, or a painter of the Early Bolognese school. 3. A concluding article on the Salon. 4. A criticism by

Paul Mantz on the hitherto but little known Dutch landscape-painter Jan van Goyen, the father-in-law of Jan Steen. His works are now finding many admirers. 5. A biographical notice of Gavarni, enlivened by several clever pen-and-ink sketches and anecdotes of the artist. 6. The water-colour and other drawings and engravings at the Salon. 7. Entitled "Un paquet de lettres," gives some interesting letters written by Géricault, Decamps, Gros, and other artists to M. Alfred Arago, a connoisseur who has stood in the most intimate relations with the artists of the last thirty years. The letters and extracts here published form a very small portion of his immense collection.

A SECOND volume of Carsten's works, edited by H. Riegel, has lately been published by Herr Dürr, of Leipzig. This second volume, in contradistinction to the first, which was devoted to Carsten's larger compositions and finished works, is chiefly occupied by his studies, portraits, and sketches, many of which have a high degree of interest as showing the development of the master's mind and art. Carsten, who holds, one may almost say, the position of earliest teacher in the modern German school of art, is essentially an artist for artists, and not for the general multitude. It shows, however, that there must be a decided appreciation of his work in Germany for the publisher to have ventured upon this second volume.

MR. W. H. JAMES WEALE has just published a third and carefully revised edition of his excellent guide to Bruges (*Bruges et ses Environs: Description des Monuments, Objets d'Art et Antiquités, Précédée d'une Notice historique*), which all intending travellers to Belgium will do well to obtain and study before their visit to that most interesting of Flemish towns, so as to make sure of not missing any of its treasures of art and archaeology when they are there. Mr. Weale's *Bruges et ses Environs* is very different from the ordinary guide-book. It is written by one who has himself done much to elucidate the early history of art in Flanders, and whose researches, together with those of his distinguished fellow-workers in the same field, have made us familiar with the names of many artists who were utterly lost to sight at the time when the first edition of his book was published in 1858. Numerous works by Gérard David are now cited with authority, Memling's history is removed from the domain of legend, and his works properly catalogued, and in every case the result of the latest researches respecting the authenticity of paintings and other works of art in Bruges made known. Two new plans of Bruges and its environs are added to this edition, and some full tables of artists' names and works and a good index add greatly to its value. The part relating to the places of interest in the environs of Bruges has been somewhat curtailed in order to make room for the far greater information given respecting the town itself, but Mr. Weale announces that he will soon have ready a new archaeological guide entitled *La Flandre occidentale, ses Monuments et ses Trésors d'Art*, which will give ample information concerning all the villages and towns of that portion of Flanders.

### THE STAGE.

SIR PETER TEAZLE.

*The School for Scandal* owes its position as the most popular comedy in the English language—and perhaps the most deservedly popular—not so much to pre-eminence in originality of character or in wit of dialogue as to a union of qualities appealing variously, and continuously, to every kind of intelligence. What serious interest of story it may have is due rather to mechanical cleverness of construction than to happiness of treatment. Of sympathetic treatment of any serious thing, it has absolutely nothing; but Sheridan was so consummate an artist that this he could conceal; or conceal it all events enough

to prevent its telling against his success. And this completeness of his art—this sense of what any given artistic work required—would of itself have saved him from the fault of becoming obtrusively didactic, even if he had not otherwise been sufficiently detached from strictly moral purpose in his life and art. But a play must have a motive—if it is to live as literature—and by the public a motive is often confused with a moral; and so, many people, in listening to these five acts of brilliant characterisation and brilliant repartee, fancy that the serious purpose of a week-day sermon lies behind the sparkle and the wit. And, indeed, the sermon may be preached after all, though without the serious purpose with which the preacher may be credited.

There is just enough of substantial and continuous interest in the mere development of story to keep attention alive during five acts, when five acts bristle with so much of repartee, with incidents and episodes in swift succession, and these all of pure comedy; for there is no farce—remember—in the *School for Scandal* but what the actors, with the traditions of nigh a hundred years, have themselves put there. But the happiness of literary treatment throughout the play is wholly on the comic side of it. Apart from this, there is some happiness of mechanical construction; but for the serious business of the play not one eloquent phrase, hardly one sympathetic line. Maria advocates virtue in very stilted English. Sir Peter is convinced, if you will, but he is over-zealous before the occasion requires it, so that the zeal falls a little short of its mark. These advocates of virtue leave your own feeling tepid. Nothing is roused in you but enthusiasm for the wit of it and the keenness. The thing is pure comedy from beginning to end; never leaning towards farce—and in this respect quite singularly excellent—never leaning either for a moment towards the interest of drama, or what the French call comedy in these latter days.

And in the union of qualities which ensures the success of the *School for Scandal*, almost whenever and wherever it is produced, the presentation of character counts for much. But the characters presented are neither profound in conception nor complete on all sides in execution. They have not been sought for very far, with the infinite penetration of a bitter genius like Molière's. They are figures due to a sparkling humorist who knew how to observe as well as most people, and how to write or to contrive much better. Compared with the men and women whom we owe to the bitter genius of Molière—or even to the tender and humane genius of Goldsmith—the men and women of Sheridan seem designed too obviously for candlelight and rouge. Their author appears for a moment but an exalted Lytton or a glorified Boucicault; and the *School for Scandal* for a moment but a better *Money*, or a finer *London Assurance*.

The general fashion of that day in literary style must count for something in what there seems of artificial and conventional in Sheridan's work. Sainte Beuve has dwelt upon the changes in polite French, and has told how the great French in Corneille's and in Racine's day, not flexible, indeed, but nervous and strong, acquired early in the eighteenth century the new quality of *urbanity*, and how as the century wore on, Rousseau—the great regenerator of the language—brought to it freedom and familiar sentiment. Rousseau's influence was rapid: in England our Goldsmith's and our Sterne's was slow; and the *Sentimental Journey* was never a masterpiece to the men who applauded tragedies translated from Kotzebue. And so, Sir Peter Teazle's protestations in favour of virtue and charity are made with a formality which lessens for a while the effect of their sincerity, so that nowadays we have here and there to translate his expressions, for where the Sir Peter of our day would say: "You don't want me to tell Lady Teazle you are in love," the true Sir Peter

says: "You are averse to my acquainting Lady Teazle with your passion;" and where our Sir Peter would say: "I'm sorry you don't get on with her," Sheridan's observes: "I am sensibly chagrined at the little progress you seem to make in her affections." But, beyond his language, what is Sir Peter Teazle? Now, no one can give an elaborate answer to that question without much ingenious invention, and this very difficulty of answering confirms one in the view one takes of Sheridan's characters, that they are clever figures adroitly contrived for our amusement on the stage, but not to be confused with those men and women of imaginative literature who to the end of the world will seem a part of our common humanity. Sir Peter is not known by you familiarly as an individual. He passes very well as the representative of a type. A middle-aged bachelor when he married the young woman from the country parlour, hung round "with fruits in worsted of her own making," he had formed habits now so firm and unaltering that marriage was a dangerous experiment, and already when we meet him in the play he has repented of his marriage—has feared to be ruined by the extravagance of the girl he had seen first in a "pretty-figured linen gown," though "the worst of it is, I doubt I love her, or I should never bear all this." He had spoken of himself, in the courtship talks, as "an old fellow who would deny you nothing;" but it was one thing to speak of himself as an old fellow, and another thing to be called so by his wife when both had lost their temper. The play bears internal evidence that Sir Peter was but just over fifty: an age at which he certainly would not have avowed himself old had he lived in our day, when youth is prolonged by Savile Row, or fashionable middle age adroitly restored. The actors, however, with scarcely an exception, represent him as old. Mr. Farren, following in his father's footsteps, gave him a hale old age—Mr. Hare actually approached senility. The actor's mistake—for mistake undoubtedly it is—is due, very likely, not only to the chance expressions one or two characters let drop, in useless contradiction of more exact statements, but to the nature of Sir Peter's fondness—his doting, almost feeble, old man's fondness—for the young woman. And the inconsistency which allows any ground for such a mistake is perhaps but another proof that Sheridan was drawing not one accurate character, to live clearly in our minds, but just a recognisable sketch of an accepted type.

Again, apart from quite occasional behaviour under Lady Teazle's provocations, Sir Peter gives no evidence of senility. He had not waited till, with advancing years, he should marry his housekeeper. He had chosen, "with caution," "a girl bred wholly in the country, who never knew luxury beyond one silk gown, nor dissipation above the annual gala of a race-ball." And whatever he may have told Lady Teazle to the contrary, he thought, no doubt, that he had married in excellent time. He and Sir Oliver had had "many a day together," and when his old friend came back he would be surprised enough to find the change. Sir Peter's admiration for the virtues of Joseph Surface had become practical—there had been days, no doubt, when it was chiefly theoretical.

And so Sir Peter stands not as individual, but type. A man just middle-aged, sane and sound, having taken but mildly the fevers of last century youth; a man of birth, but not proud of his birth; a man of means, liberal, but not lavish of his means; a man of warm heart and warmest temper—though he thinks he is "the sweetest tempered man alive"—a man exacting, not actually from selfishness, but because during thirty years of manhood he has had things his own way, and cannot understand how other people's ways should not be precisely his. Finally, he is above all a gentleman, not merely by manner and breeding like his acquaintances of the college for scandal, who entertain each other with slanders of the absent; not a gentleman provided with the ready-



made sentiments of Joseph, or with the circumstantial gossip of Crabtree, or with the malicious epigrams of Sir Benjamin; but one to whom these things are an abhorrence. He is a type of sterling character in meretricious company. His presence is a damper upon brilliant malice. And if at the beginning of the play Charles Surface stands as Sheridan's representative of honour and folly, Sir Peter, at the end, after many experiences, serves as his representative of honour and wisdom.

FREDERICK WEDMORE.

THE critics who went down to the Mirror Theatre on Saturday came back with a mild joke, but with no material for criticism. For in the *Dogs of St. Bernard*, the principal performer—the dog whose indisposition had caused deep anxiety in the theatrical world—was bitterly disappointing. His appearance was looked forward to with hope, not unmixed with concern; but the result was by no means satisfactory. Even when judged, not as an artist, but as a dog, the animal's performance must be pronounced incomplete. Two admirable scenes, painted by Mr. Maugham, had been provided for the occasion; and one became conscious at intervals during the performance that some serious interest was intended to be aroused by the actors in the main plot. But the plot did not allow of their success, and though the ladies and gentlemen engaged bent their energies to the utmost in support of the dog, it was all of little avail; the mind of the public on leaving the theatre was noticed to be tinged with melancholy.

DR. PANGLOSS, in the *Heir-at-Law*—the best-known production of the younger Colman—is the part chosen by Mr. J. S. Clarke, the American comic actor, for his re-appearance at the Haymarket to-night. The same part has been played at the same theatre by Mr. Compton. The *Heir at Law* is to be followed by the *Widow Hunt*.

WE are in the middle of the very dullest period of the theatrical year, yet the activity of managers is not wholly at a standstill, for *La Fille de Madame Angot* has enlivened the dullness of Camden Town, and *La Grande Duchesse* is to be heard immediately in the Strand. Miss V. Granville appears as Lange at the Alexandra Theatre, while at the Opéra Comique Theatre the Grand Duchess will be played by Mlle. Corrélie d'Anka. Again, the Charing Cross Theatre will re-open this evening with the opéra bouffe of *Dagobert*, with Miss Laverne, Miss Burville, Mr. Odell, and Mr. Rosenthal in the principal parts. It appears then that those who confidently predicted that opéra bouffe had had its day, were somewhat premature in the announcement.

WHILE all around it theatres open and close with everything from opéra bouffe to tragedy, the Vaudeville remains steady to its comedies or comedy-dramas, and knows no difference between August and February. Mr. Byron's *Our Boys* is farcical enough, undoubtedly, but the actors do not appear to have gone out of their way since the first night to make it more so; and if Mr. Farren hardly does himself justice in the part of the stage Baronet, and Miss Roselle has only one scene in which there is any scope for her comedy power, Messrs. James and Thorne on the other hand are admirably provided for, and acquit themselves quite excellently in their respective characters. The piece has now been running for all but two hundred nights, and no change in the programme is likely to be required until the autumn is far advanced.

MR. WYNDHAM was going to act in several other German towns, when he had finished his engagement at Berlin; but he has returned to England, and next month he will resume his performances at the Crystal Palace.

MISS ADA CAVENDISH will act in the large towns of Yorkshire, during September, appearing in her most favourite character, Mr. Collins's New

Magdalen—and also in Juliet, Rosalind, Beatrice, and Lady Teazle.

MR. AND MRS. KENDAL will shortly appear as Orlando and Rosalind in *As You Like It* at the Theatre Royal, Manchester.

MR. HARE, Mr. John Clayton, and Miss Hollingshead were last week acting in Glasgow, in Mr. Aidé's comedy.

MR. J. C. COWPER is going to America on a professional tour.

MR. SOTHERN is not expected to return to town till Christmas.

*The White Bouquet*, played every evening at the Globe Theatre after the performance of *Love and Honour*, is an adaptation if not a pretty literal translation from the French, and is deserving of mention only as it re-introduces to the London public—or more truly speaking to the provincial public now in London—the comic actor Mr. Wenman, who was quite successful last autumn at the Haymarket. But Mr. Wenman, who is decidedly funny, might with advantage be provided with a better part.

*Jean-nu-pieds*—the much-lauded piece of M. Albert Delpit, at the Paris Vaudeville—has come abruptly to its end; the twenty brother critics were all wrong, and M. Sarcey right. The manager has recognised the heat of the weather—which did not prevent the success of the *Procès Veauradieux*—and has withdrawn M. Delpit's drama until cooler days, but the atmospheric conditions required to restore *Jean-nu-pieds* to the boards will probably be long in manifesting themselves. Meantime, *Le Procès Veauradieux* has returned to its place, and the public no longer passes indifferently by the door in the Chaussée d'Antin. *Après* of the *Procès Veauradieux*, a fact of much interest to actors may here be mentioned. It will be remembered that during a lapse in the management, the actors and actresses of the Vaudeville resolved to speculate on their own account, and finding neglected—so the story goes—in some old drawer, the *Procès Veauradieux*, they selected it for performance. The house filled every night. Dog-days counted for nothing. And a few days since, on passing the management once more into the hands of the directors, the actors met and sat down to divide the profits of their month or so of business. Each performer received as his share about seven times the amount of the salary due to him for the time of the engagement; which shows of course, what everybody knew, that the *Procès Veauradieux* was a success, but shows, too, what everybody does not seem to know, how very small a proportion of the receipts of any successful piece goes into the hands of the company acting it.

M. VICTOR KONING, known as a contributor to the lighter drama, has become the manager of the Théâtre de la Renaissance.

AFTER October 1 there is to be an exhibition of pictures to add to the attractions of the Théâtre Taitbout in Paris.

Mlle. ROUSSEIL and MM. Clément Just and Montal are engaged to appear in M. Jules Claretie's new drama at the Théâtre Historique.

THE manager of the Théâtre des Variétés and Mlle. Schneider have gone to law over a quarrel concerning the appearance of the actress in a new piece by Meilhac and Halévy. It is stated that the part originally destined for her in the new piece was less important than those she had been accustomed to play.

THE excellent comic actor Geoffroy has returned to the Palais Royal, and the theatre has reproduced two of its merriest pieces, *La Sensitive* by M. Labiche and *Le Roi Candale* by Meilhac and Halévy. The second has the greater merit; the first appearing in the eyes of some little else than a "bouffonnerie grivoise;" but the wit of the second no one will contest. It is typical of the

kind that Meilhac and Halévy have contributed in abundance to the repertory of the Palais Royal—a piece with little plot, but with infinite ingenuity of treatment, and full of an audacious liveliness and a perhaps exaggerated freedom. Geoffroy is as excellent as ever in it; Lhéritier is an amusing *ganache*; and Mlle. Linda shows real humour in a part hitherto played by an actress more remarkable for beauty than wit.

AMONG the services rendered by the Théâtre Français is that of reviving from time to time pieces that have long been out of fashion, or of restoring the original text of pieces that have been played in a mutilated form. Sedaine is an author not now greatly in vogue, though many people have seen the performance of his *Philosophe sans le savoir*, but they have seen it in the form which the dramatic censor of Sedaine's day required it to take. Among the inexhaustible riches of the archives of the Théâtre Français there was lately found the original manuscript, and the *Philosophe sans le savoir* will now be played in the Rue Richelieu exactly as its author meant it to be. The alterations forced upon Sedaine were by no means merely verbal ones. They had to do with the action of the piece; and the action at a critical moment was made so entirely different from what the dramatist had meant it to be that he complained that the title itself was no longer a reasonable one, and that his hero was no longer a *philosophe sans le savoir*. It is remarked that Sedaine's piece is by no means alone in having been performed, years after the necessity had passed away, in another form than that in which it was written. Reasons totally different from those that counselled the changes in the *Philosophe sans le savoir* had led to the substitution of Thomas Corneille's version of Molière's *Don Juan* for the original version. This text of Thomas Corneille's was familiar to men's ears, and for about a century and a half no one proposed to dispense with it, till at last, after the piece had lain in silence for a very considerable time, it was thought likely to be attractive if revived in its original form; and thus *Don Juan* as Molière had written it came to be heard again.

## MUSIC.

### NEW MUSIC.

THE number of new publications sent from time to time to our office for notice is such as to render it impossible to deal with them in any detail. We have before us more than twenty works of the most varied description awaiting review, and must confine ourselves to a few words as to their leading features.

Some new educational works first call for attention. Of these the most important as regards size is Ludwig Bussler's *Praktische Harmonielehre in vierundfünfzig Aufgaben* (Berlin: Carl Habel). This book differs so widely in its method from most of the systems of harmony in general use that it is difficult to pronounce a decided opinion upon its merits without submitting it to the practical test of adopting it as a class-book. The chief difference is that, instead of beginning with the harmonising of a given bass, it commences at once by giving the melody. This plan may probably be found more interesting to the pupil; but it may be questioned whether he will thus obtain so thorough a mastery of his subject as in the ordinary, if drier, method. Certainly in the models given by Herr Bussler progressions are to be found which disregard altogether important fundamental rules given in such books as Richter's *Harmony* (the class-book adopted at the Leipzig Conservatorium) as to the motion of the different voices. It seems to us that the learner would be likely to fall into a happy-go-lucky style of harmonising, from which he would not find it easy afterwards to recover. To give one instance, taken quite at random from the first page at which we happen to open the book. In Model No. 4

(page 16) we find in the last bar some "hidden fifth" between the two upper parts, of the most objectionable description, which might have been avoided with the greatest ease. If the master does such things, the pupil will probably do much worse.

*Piano and Singing—Didactical and Polemical*, by Friedrich Wieck; translated by H. Krueger (Aberdeen: H. Krueger), is a very interesting and by no means commonplace little work. It contains the results of the long professional experience of one of the ablest teachers of the present century. The best testimony to the success of his method is borne by the fact that it produced two such players as the author's daughters—M<sup>lle</sup>. Clara Schumann and M<sup>lle</sup>. Maria Wieck, by whose desire the English translation has been prepared. What most distinguishes the book is its sterling common sense. The author in his preface disclaims all literary merit; yet the work has the advantage of being thoroughly readable. It is written in a homely conversational style, abounding in curious and original turns of expression which must have rendered the task of translation more than ordinarily difficult—how difficult, indeed, only those who know the original German can understand. The translator, in a note prefixed to the work, says that he has allowed certain not unimpeachable phrases to stand because it was impossible to replace them without sacrificing the spirit of the original; and the excuse may be admitted as a valid one. A great part of the book consists of practical hints to teachers and performers, many of the suggestions made being of real value. The author is very severe on humbug and affectation of all kinds, and such chapters as those on "Singing and Singing Masters," "Quack Doctors," "Singing and Piano Misdoings," will be read with interest. The book contains as an introduction a sketch of the author's life, and an admirably executed frontispiece gives us the portrait of Wieck and his two daughters. We have much pleasure in most cordially recommending the little work to the attention both of teacher and student.

*A Plan for Teaching Music to a Child*, by Mrs. Frederick Inman (Edinburgh: Thomas Laurie), is, on the whole, fairly good, but in one or two points decidedly open to improvement. For one thing, no proper explanation is given of the use of the bar in music. We are simply told that the bar "divides the air into equal portions all of equal value." But the real object of the bar—to mark clearly the position of the strong accents—is only incidentally mentioned, and not brought out with the distinctness its importance requires. The rules for fingering, also, are singularly vague and incomplete. For instance, the only rule given for fingering the scales is to observe the "continuity of sound." But in several of the scales this (if this be the only object) might be done with at least half-a-dozen fingerings besides the right one. Proper rules for scale-fingering might have been given with advantage; moreover, not the slightest hint is given of the fingering of chords and arpeggios, a most important branch of the subject. With no further guidance than that contained in this book, a child's system of fingering would probably be something fearful to think of. In the hands of a judicious teacher this little work may be found useful, but simply as an outline, certainly not as an instruction book.

*A First Book on the Theory of Music*, by Louisa Gibson (London: Moffatt, Paige & Co.), is far more satisfactory than the work last noticed. It is quite elementary, giving merely as much as is desirable for students of the piano to understand, and it is in general both very correct and very clear. In the treatment of the "bar" Miss Gibson falls into the mistake noticed above, of omitting to explain with sufficient distinctness the connection between the bar and the accent; but this is the only fault we have to find with the

little work, which may be honestly recommended for teaching purposes.

*"The Philosophy of Voice"* (second edition), by Charles Lunn (Baillière, Tindal and Cox), is a book which rather addresses itself to the medical than to the musical profession. In his preface, Mr. Lunn speaks of this as

"A second edition, couched in simplest terms, which, while conveying my meaning in full, shall appeal, not only to the class for whom it was originally written—[we ought to say, in explanation of this, that it originally appeared in the *Medical Press and Circular*—]but, by the substitution of ordinary for technical expressions, shall also be of service, as best my powers will allow, to all who may choose to read my words."

Relying on this promise of the avoidance of technicality we commenced reading the book carefully, and on reaching p. 33 we found the following:—

"1. The arytenoid cartilages intimately meet at their internal surfaces and processes, and bring the edges of the vocal cords into contact. 2. The superior vocal cords approach the inferior so as to obliterate the ventricles of Morgagni; at the same time they also meet in the median line."

We are not ashamed to confess that the above extract "floored" us completely. We gave up the book as a bad job, but have much pleasure in recommending it to those who understand the arytenoid cartilages, the ventricles of Morgagni, and the median line. We ought, however, in justice to Mr. Lunn, to add that excepting in such matters, his book is clear enough, but that without thoroughly understanding the anatomical part of the subject one cannot pronounce an opinion on the value of his theories. To do this the opportunity ought to be afforded of hearing some singers who have been trained on his system, and no such opportunity has yet, so far as we are aware, been given.

Two important orchestral compositions next claim our notice. These are an *Overture Héroïque* and *Marche des Impériaux* from Shakspeare's *Julius Caesar*, composed by Hans von Bülow (Schott and Co.). Though it cannot be fairly said that Dr. Bülow is as great a composer as he is a pianist, these two works, which are published in full score, bear testimony to ability of no mean order. Of the two, the overture is the more important both as regards length and the artistic value of its contents. It is excellently written, on well-chosen subjects, and the instrumentation shows that thorough acquaintance with the resources of an orchestra which might be expected from a conductor of Dr. Bülow's experience. The march, though somewhat more commonplace in its themes than the overture, is a gorgeous piece of pageant music. It was played some twelve months ago with great success at one of the Wagner Society's concerts last season.

"Funeral March," composed by Herbert S. Oakeley, op. 23. (London: Novello, Ewer and Co.), is one of the best pieces from the pen of the Edinburgh Professor that we have yet seen. It is in all respects superior to his "Edinburgh March," and although it would of course be unfair to compare it with Beethoven's two funeral marches, or even with Raff's very fine example of the style in his sixth symphony, it is, apart altogether from comparisons, a thoroughly good piece of music, interesting both in subjects and treatment. The copy before us is a beautifully engraved full score, and the instrumentation is clever and effective, rich without being overloaded.

Coming now to sheet music, we find the usual variety both in nature and quality of the contents. "Two Mazurkas" and a "Humoreske" for the pianoforte, by M. G. Carmichael (Stanley Lucas, Weber and Co.), are little pieces of decidedly more than average originality. Though they occasionally show signs of inexperience, especially in the matter of rhythm, it is really refreshing to meet with pieces distinguished by so

total an avoidance of commonplace. A "Bourrée" for the piano, by Wilfred E. Bendall (Weekes and Co.), is a good sound piece of writing in the quasi-antique style which is at present so popular. "Andante and Rondo" and "Capricciotto" for the piano, by A. Ergmann (William Czerny), can be commended as well-written; but both are more interesting from their treatment than from their subjects. "Gavotte by J. P. Rameau," transcribed for the piano by O. Kronke (Augener and Co.), is a characteristic specimen of the old French master, very well arranged, which in its present form makes an effective piece. Parts 26 and 27 of the *Organist's Quarterly Journal* (Novello, Ewer and Co.), though containing nothing requiring special notice, are of about the average variety and interest.

Of vocal music, "Andalusian Moonlight" and "Three Songs" (1. A Tragedy, 2. A Nocturne, 3. A Serenade), by M. L. Lawson (Stanley Lucas, Weber and Co.), are not only very good, but very fresh. Mr. Lawson, unlike the large majority of people who publish songs, has really got something to say, and knows how to say it. We can also recommend two well-written songs by Rosetta O'Leary Vinning, "I know my Love loves me" and "My Angel Lassie" (same publishers); and, with a certain amount of reservation, as being rather more commonplace though pretty, "The Lover and the Star," by P. D. Guglielmo, and "Honour Bright," by J. L. Hatton, both published by Simpson and Co. Lastly, we have a very pleasing and effective five-part Choral Song, "O Holy Night," by O. A. Barry (Stanley Lucas, Weber and Co.), which may be recommended to choral societies.

In addition to the above, we have received some half-dozen pieces about which it is impossible to say anything favourable, and it is therefore best to say nothing. EBENEZER PROUT.

THE edition of classical pianoforte music published by the eminent firm of Cotta in Stuttgart will be known to many of our readers. It has just given rise to a rather interesting law suit, some particulars of which may be worth noting. The first section of the edition in question contains a selection from the sonatas, &c., of Joseph Haydn, edited by Sigmund Lebert in conjunction with Immanuel Faisst and Ignaz Lachner. The distinctive feature of the edition is its notes, which are remarkably copious; and as Messrs. Lebert and Faisst are professors in the Stuttgart Conservatorium, their "Instructive Edition" (as it is entitled) is used as a class-book in that institution. Another fellow-professor, Herr Wilhelm Speidel, has lately published a similar "instructive edition" of the same sonatas, which contains many points of resemblance too striking to be easily considered accidental. Messrs. Lebert and Faisst thereupon accused their colleague of plagiarism as well as of disregard for the interests of the Conservatorium, and subsequently made even graver charges affecting his honour. Herr Speidel consequently brought an action for libel, laying the damages at 500 gulden. The defendants, to substantiate their accusation of plagiarism, called as witnesses Dr. Ferdinand Hiller, Wilhelm Krüger, Dionys Pruchner, and other well-known musicians, while an opinion on the side of the plaintiff was given by such men as Carl Grädener, Julius Epstein, and Louis Köhler. The judgment of the Court was in favour of the defendants on the count that they had against their own better knowledge charged the plaintiff with plagiarism; because it was clearly proved that the plaintiff had in his edition made use, more or less, of that of the defendants. Whether that use was lawful or unlawful was a question which need not be decided at this trial; it was sufficient to justify the defendants that they were firmly convinced that the fair limits had been exceeded, while the contradictory evidence even of connoisseurs showed how much the procedure



of the plaintiff was open to question. But as much as in this second publication the defendants have allowed themselves to be led away under the influence of excitement, and to use too strong expressions, damages of 50 thalers (7l. 10s.) were awarded to the plaintiff on this count, and each side was ordered to pay its own costs.

It is stated that the Norwegian violinist, Ole Bull, will next winter make a last concert-tour through Sweden, Denmark, and Germany.

A new opera by Suppé, entitled *Im Krimm-kriege*, is shortly expected.

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August, 1875.

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